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# LITERARY MAGAZINE,

AND

# BRITISH REVIEW,

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## LIFE OF THE ABBE CHAPPE.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

**J**OHN Chappe d'Auteroche was born at Mauriac, a town in Upper Auvergne, on the 23d of May, 1728, of John Chappe, lord of the barony of Anteroche, and Magdalen de la Farge, daughter of Peter de la Farge, lord of la Pierre, and major in the regiment of Royal Carabiniers.

Young Chappe, from the moment of his birth, enjoyed the valuable advantage of not being under the necessity of struggling, like many men of genius, with adversity and penury, which, too often, fall to the lot of merit, and by obscuring the most brilliant talents, check their efforts, and retard their advancement. The distinguished rank which his parents held in their province, added to their wealth and opulence, enabled them to bestow upon their son an excellent education, the foundation of which was laid at Mauriac, where he began his studies. Having made considerable progress here, he went, afterwards, to finish them at the college de

Louis le Grand, as the celebrity of its professors, at that time, seemed to promise him the happiest success, and his hopes, indeed, were not disappointed.

Young Chappe, from his earliest infancy, shewed a wonderful turn for drawing and the mathematics. Descartes was scarcely eight years of age when he was styled a philosopher; young Chappe, in the like manner, might have been honoured with the title of a mathematician. An irresistible impulse, and singular disposition, as if innate, led him to draw plans, and make calculations; but these pursuits, quite foreign to the studies in which he was then engaged, occupied no part of that time which was allotted for them. He applied to the former only at those moments which the regulations of the college suffered him to call his own.

Genius, which is always active, made the Abbé Chappe discover, in the silence and solitude of the cloister, resources which he little expected.

ed. During his course of philosophy, he formed an acquaintance with a Carthusian, named Dom Germain, from whom he learned the elements of the mathematicks and of astronomy. In these two sciences he made a rapid progress; for the zeal of the master was well seconded by the diligence of the scholar, who followed his literary pursuits with the same ardour and enthusiasm as the generality of young men follow dissipation and pleasure.

So singular a phenomenon could not long remain unknown. Father de la Tour, then principal of the college, being struck with young La Chappe, mentioned him to Mr. Caffini, and spoke of the progress he had made in such high terms, that the latter became very desirous to see some of his works. After causing him to make a few trials in his presence, that celebrated academician could not help admiring his happy disposition; but he did not confine himself to praises only. Being a warm patron and protector of merit, because he possessed a great deal himself, he that moment resolved to cultivate young Chappe's talents, and to endeavour to render them useful to society. With this view, he employed him in taking plans of several of the royal buildings, and made him assist in delineating the general map of France.

The Abbé Chappe, however, made himself known in the astronomical world, by a work of much greater importance. The vast genius of Halley, embracing the celestial universe, had comprehended the whole system and harmony of the stars. Futurity had displayed itself before the eyes of this great man; and, in his astronomical tables, he had traced out the path in which the planets were to pursue their courses; calculated their eclipses; and, by an ingenious application of his theory to the parallaxes of Venus and the sun, had been able to announce that the transit of the former over the sun's disk would furnish the means of determining the distance of that luminary from the earth.

These tables, the result of repeated observations, and of laborious application, were to many people as dark and obscure as the responses of the ancient oracles; besides, as they were published in English, they were lost to a great part of Europe, though absolutely necessary for those who wished to devote their attention to the study of the heavens. The Abbé Chappe, therefore, undertook to remedy this deficiency; and, by translating Halley's work, he rendered an essential service to his countrymen. This translation appeared in 1752; and the additions which the translator made, and the new inductions which he drew from the labours of the English astronomer, placed him almost on a level with the author.

The Abbé Chappe had now given too striking a specimen of his talents not to attract the notice of Government. The king having ordered plans of several places in the county of Bitche, in Lorraine, to be taken, and the forest in the neighbourhood of the town of the same name, to be surveyed, the Abbé Chappe's merit procured him the superintendence and direction of this business; and the event shewed, that the ministry could not have chosen a person more deserving of their confidence. Men of ordinary abilities take advantage of proper occasions; but the man of genius alone knows how to create them. The Abbé Chappe, in the midst of forests, under a cloudy and unfavourable sky, without instruments, and without observatory, encountered difficulties which might have discouraged any other persons; but they served only to augment his ardour. In a neighbouring court, celebrated for patronizing the fine arts, he found every instrument which he had occasion for, and in unshaken constancy, resources that enabled him to surmount every obstacle. Employed, during the day, in executing those plans which he was commissioned to take, he devoted the night to astronomical observations, which were attended with more success than

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he could well have hoped for; and which served to clear up a very important point in geography, by determining the real position of the town of Bitche, a kind of problem that had never before been resolved.

On his return from this expedition, he was chosen a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences; and on the 17th of January, 1759, he obtained the place of assistant astronomer, vacant by the promotion of Mr. De la Lande to that of associate. This reward, so justly merited, and the only one which he aspired at, was the more flattering, as it introduced him to the acquaintance of all the learned men who composed that illustrious body.

The two comets which appeared in 1760 gave the Abbé an opportunity of shewing that he was not unworthy of the honour conferred on him; he observed them both with the greatest assiduity and attention, and the result of his observations was published in the memoirs of that year, with reflections on the zodiacal light, and an aurora borealis, which appeared about the same period.

As the transit of Venus, over the sun's disk, which Halley announced would take place on the 6th of June, 1761, seemed to promise great advantage to astronomy, it very much excited the curiosity of the learned throughout all Europe. It was necessary, however, in order to derive benefit from it, that it should be observed in some very remote places; and as Tobolsk, the capital of Siberia, and the island of Roderigo, in the East Indies, were thought to be the properest, the difficulty was to find astronomers bold enough to transport themselves thither. But what will not the love of science prompt men to do? Mr. Pingé offered to go to the island of Roderigo, and Tobolsk remained to the Abbé Chappe, who, had the matter been left to himself, would have made no other choice. Mr. Fouchy, the author of the Abbé's eloge, says, "The one went to encounter the ardours of the torrid

zone, and the other to traverse the ice of a region more truly hyperborean than those which the ancients distinguished by that name."

The Abbé having received his majesty's order, and recommendations from the learned body of which he was a member, set out for the place of his destination in the month of November, 1760. In the course of his journey, he experienced all those fatigues and dangers which were to be expected in so advanced a season; and, on account of the war which then prevailed, he was obliged to travel by the way of Vienna and Poland. At these two courts, he received the most flattering reception, from the Count de Choiseul and the Marquis de Paulmi, both equally distinguished by their zeal for the welfare of their country, and for the advancement of science.

After residing a short time at Vienna and Warsaw, during which he had the honour of being presented to their Imperial Majesties and the King of Poland, the Abbé set out for Petersburg, where he arrived on the 13th of February, after many disagreeable accidents. A more insurmountable obstacle, however, which he had not thought of, awaited him in the capital, and he found himself, on the point of losing the whole fruit of his journey. The astronomers chosen by the Academy of Petersburg to observe the transit, had departed a month before; and besides this, the spot assigned them, being not so far distant as Tobolsk, was less favourable to astronomical observations than that city. The Abbé, therefore, saw himself in a very disagreeable situation, and his whole fear was that, by new delays, he should be prevented from seizing the moment proper for observing a phenomenon long expected by astronomers: but the sciences luckily found a protector in the Baron de Breteuil, then ambassador from the court of France to that of Russia. By the activity of that minister, and the assistance of Mr. de Woronzof, grand chancellor,

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every difficulty was removed; and the Empress Elizabeth gave orders for the Abbé's departure, which was fixed for the 10th of March.

This favour, the object of our academician's wishes, seemed likely to prove his ruin. It was, indeed, very imprudent, at such an epoch, to run the risk of crossing a country eight hundred leagues in extent, which lies between Peterburgh and Tobolsk; but the Abbé was indebted for his safety to the intenseness of the frost, and the velocity of the sledges, which was so great in rivers, he tells us, that being on that of Docka, one of the positions could not turn aside the horses of his sledge speedily enough to avoid a hole where the water was not froze, and into which the horse fell; yet the ice in the neighbouring parts was above three feet thick.

It is a very singular phenomenon, and demonstrates, in an evident manner, the efficacy of friction and motion to produce heat, that many holes of the like kind, where the water never freezes, are to be met with on the rivers of Siberia, though, at the same time, brandy, and other spirits, cannot preserve their liquidity.

This was not the only danger to which the Abbé was exposed, in the course of his journey. One cannot read, without a certain impression of horror, mixed, however, with some pleasure, the striking and just picture which he exhibits of the perils that threatened him every moment, amidst the ice and the snow. If the thermometer, the only thing which announced the approach of a thaw, promised him a milder fate, by a decrease of the cold, his fears were augmented by a dread of being forced to remain amidst the forests of Siberia. The account which he has left of that frightful country is melancholy, almost beyond description. "No bird," says he, "announced the approach of spring. The magpies and crows, which are found in great numbers on all the roads throughout Russia, had even abandoned these deserts, and Nature

appeared as if in a state of torpor. I could perceive, by the traces of sledges only, that these places were inhabited; a gloomy sadness every where prevailed; and the universal silence that reigned around was never interrupted, but by the cries of some one of the company, who had fallen from his sledge, calling out for assistance."

After travelling a month in this laborious manner, our intrepid astronomer arrived at Tobolsk, where ignorance and superstition prepared new dangers for him. Rude and barbarous people, struck with the magnificent spectacle exhibited by the heavenly bodies, have often taken for the Divinity what is only the effect of his power. In their blindness, they almost all adore the sun and the moon, because they are more sensible of their immediate influence; and, on this account, they ascribe supernatural power to those who seem to have any intercourse with the heavens. This error, which, even in Europe, gave birth to the follies of astrology, had almost deprived the Abbé Chappe of his life. The Russians, attentive to all his actions, beheld his preparations with the utmost terror: the observatory which he caused to be erected, and the instruments he transported thither, encreased their alarm, and the overflowing of the river Irtysh, which inundated part of the city, a natural consequence of the thaw that took place, served still to confirm them in their suspicions. Mr. Hmaelof, the governor of Tobolsk, a very enlightened man, to whom we are indebted for a correct chart of the Caspian Sea, was, therefore, obliged to give the Abbé a guard for his protection; and for the first time, perhaps, the sciences, whose empire is founded on peace and happiness, were under the necessity of using violence, and of establishing themselves, if we may use the expression, by the force of arms.

The moment so long wished for, and purchased by so much labour, being at length arrived, the Abbé, on

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the 5th of June, made every necessary preparation for observing the transit; but the pleasure which he anticipated from the success of his expedition, was not free from a mixture of pain; for the sky, during the night, became quite overcast. This was a new source of uneasiness to the Abbé; but luckily for science, a favourable wind, which sprung up at sun rise, revived his hopes, by withdrawing the veil that obscured the object of his researches. The observation was made with the necessary precision, in presence of Mr. Ismaelof, Count de Poulkin, and the archbishop of Tobolsk; and the academy of sciences at Paris, as well as that of Petersburg, received the particulars of this event soon after, by a courier which Mr. Ismaelof immediately dispatched.

Astronomy was not the only study which engaged the attention of a genius so extensive as that of the Abbé Chappe: he applied also to mineralogy, experimental philosophy, and natural history. Assisted by Mr. Delisle, he rectified the imperfections of the Russian charts; and, at the same time, made a series of experiments respecting electricity, which he compared with those made at Bitche, in Lorraine, in 1757. His observations discovered, that in Siberia, where he found electricity much stronger than any where else, lightning sometimes ascended; and he conjectured, that it often rises from the earth without noise, by means of conductors invisible to us; and that it never produces thunder till it has arrived at a certain height.

The great rains which fell while he was in this country, prevented him from carrying his researches farther. He was therefore preparing to return, when his constitution, which had hitherto withstood the influence of a climate for which it was not formed, yielded to the effects of a disorder, brought on, perhaps, by the fatigue and labour he had undergone. He was attacked by an almost continual vomiting of blood, accompanied with

so great weakness that he could scarcely walk. These circumstances made him hasten his departure, and quit, as soon as possible, a country where the healing art, on a level with other sciences, that is to say, enveloped in the grossest clouds of ignorance, was acquainted with no other remedy than the use of stoves.

Being an accurate observer, the Abbé Chappe suffered no remarkable object in the country which he traversed to escape his notice. It is true, that in these deserts, they were more uncommon than he could have wished; but he found in the mines of Katerinburg, the only ones almost which the Russians possess, enough to gratify his curiosity. He descended into them; examined them with the utmost care; and made excellent remarks on the nature of the surrounding soil, the quality of the metals they produce, and the manner in which they are worked.

From Katerinburg he proceeded to Casan, the capital of the kingdom of the same name. The sight of this city, situated in a temperate climate, afforded him the more pleasure, as it reminded him in some measure of his own country. Trees loaded with fruit, which the cold had respected; gardens laid out with taste, and a certain air of grandeur, and opulence, all concurred to preserve the agreeable illusion. The governor, a Tartar prince, shewed him every mark of kindness; and he was well received also by the archbishop, whose mind, cultivated by the study of literature, and the sciences, had preserved itself from the contagion of fanaticism and superstition. "This" says the Abbé, in the account of his journey, "was the only priest I saw, in these vast territories, who did not appear astonished, that one should come from Paris to Tobolsk to observe Venus."

The glory of this observation had preceded the Abbé, and prepared new honors for him at Petersburg. The Empress, with a view of inducing him to settle there, made him an offer,

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by means of Baron de Breteuil, of the distinguished place which had been occupied by Mr. Delisle. The advantages, however, attending this situation, though very considerable, were no balance in the Abbé's heart, to the love of his country, and the sentiments of gratitude which he entertained for the kindness of his sovereign. The Abbé therefore rejected the offers made him; but he spent the winter at Petersburg, and did not return to Paris, till the month of August, 1762, after being absent from it two years. Immediately after his arrival, he began to prepare an account of his journey, which was published, in 1768, in three volumes quarto, elegantly printed, and adorned with engravings; but it is much to be regretted that the style is not always suited to the magnificence of the work. It was, however, much esteemed; and would, perhaps be more so, were it better known, as the author gives a most minute and instructive account of every thing respecting his journey, which was undertaken principally with a view of observing the transit of Venus at Tobolsk. The philosopher will find in it the history of mankind and of nature; and the statesman the political system and interest of nations.

The Abbé has omitted nothing that could add to the knowledge which we already have of an ignorant and brutal people, who, when they came from the hands of the Czar Peter, if we may use the expression, at the beginning of this century, had no connection with the civilized part of Europe, and who, in our days, have so much influence over the affairs of the North. The Abbé Chappe seems too desirous of combating the opinion formed of Russia, and which the successes of its arms perhaps justifies. "My friends," says he, "wrote to me from the capital of France, to examine thoroughly that country, from which swarms of people, at a moment's warning, might issue like the Huns, and swallow up all the rest

of Europe: Instead of these people, I found nothing but deserts and marshes."

The great labour required to prepare this work for publication, did not interrupt the Abbé's astronomical pursuits. He enriched the memoirs of the academy with several instructive pieces, and that which he presented in 1767, is the more valuable, as it confirms the experiments made upon electricity at Tobolsk, and demonstrates the identity of the electric fluid with lightning.

Another transit of Venus, which, according to astronomical calculations, was to take place on the 3d of June, 1769, afforded the Abbé Chappe a new opportunity of manifesting his zeal for the advancement of astronomy. California was pointed out as the properest place in that quarter for observing this phenomenon; and the Abbé, who had triumphed over the severity of the North, thought he could brave also the ardors of the torrid zone. He departed therefore, from Paris in 1768, in company with Mr. Pauly, an engineer, and Mr. Noel, a draftsman, whose talents gave reason to hope, that he might contribute to render the expedition interesting, in more respects than one. He carried with him a watchmaker also, to take care of his instruments, and to keep them in proper repair.

On his arrival at Cadiz, the vessel belonging to the Spanish fleet, in which he was to embark for *Vera Cruz*, not being ready in time, he obtained an order for equipping a brigantine, which carried twelve men. The fragility of this vessel, which would have alarmed any other person, appeared to the Abbé as adding to the merit of the enterprize. Judging of its velocity by its lightness, he considered it as better calculated to gratify his impatience; and in this he was not deceived: for he arrived safe at the capital of New Spain, where he met with no delay. The Marquis de Croix, governor of Mexico, seconded his activity so well, that

that he reached St. Joseph nineteen days before that marked out for the observation.

The village of St. Joseph, where the Abbé landed, was desolated by an infectious disorder, which had prevailed for some time, and destroyed a great many of the inhabitants. In vain did his friends, from a tender solicitude for his preservation, urge him to remove from the infection—In vain did they advise him not to expose himself imprudently, and to take his station at some distance towards Cape *Sau-Lucar*. His ardent and lively zeal for the progress of science, shut his ears against all the remonstrances of his friends, or rather of reason; and the only danger he foresaw was, that of losing an opportunity of accomplishing the object of his wishes. He had the good fortune, however, to make his observations, in the completest manner, on the 3d of June; but becoming a victim to his resolution, he was three days after attacked by the distemper, which seemed hitherto to have respected him. Surrounded by his acquaintances, either sick, or dying, and destitute of that assistance which he had given them as long as health remained, the Abbé was struggling between life and death, when by his own imprudence he destroyed every ray of hope, and hastened that fatal period which deprived the world of this valuable member of society. The very day he had taken physic, he insisted upon observing an eclipse of the moon; but scarcely had he finished his observation, when his disorder grew considerably worse, and the remedies administered not being able to check its progress, he died on the 1st of August, 1769, in the forty-second year of his age.

Had it not been for the care of a very respectable French academician,

the fruits of this observation would have been entirely lost to the learned. The Abbé Chappe having at his death committed his papers to the care of Mr. Pauly, they were afterwards arranged and published by Mr. Cassini, the son, who at an age when others only afford hopes of their future celebrity, had acquired the highest reputation. It was reserved for this gentleman to preserve, if we may say so, the existence of a philosopher whom his grandfather had formed; and if any thing could console the public for the loss, occasioned by the Abbé being prevented from putting the last hand to his work, it certainly was the seeing it appear under the auspices of so able an editor.

The Abbé Chappe always beheld death with a firmness, and resolution, which can be inspired only by the testimony of a pure conscience. The evening before his departure from Paris, being at supper with Count de Mercy, the Imperial Ambassador, several of his friends represented to him, that he ought not to undertake such a voyage, and offered to lay a considerable wager that he would never return. "Were I certain," replied the Abbé, "that I should die the next morning after I had made my observation, I would not hesitate a moment, nor be in the least deterred from embarking." Four days indeed, before his death, he said to those who were around him, "I must go.—I am sensible that I have only a few days to live—I have, however, accomplished my object, and I die contented." An heroic sentiment, which paints, in a few words, the character of this learned man, whose death was much lamented; and fully proves, that the love of the sciences, as well as the love of one's country, may produce a Decius\*.

\* Decius, being Consul with Manlius Torquatus, in the year 320 before the Christian era, devoted himself to the infernal gods in a battle fought against the Latins.

NARRATIVE OF THE SUFFERINGS OF THE CREW OF THE NOOTKA,  
IN PRINCE WILLIAM'S SOUND, DURING THE WINTER IN  
1786-7.

EXTRACTED FROM MEARE'S VOYAGES.

**D**URING the months of November and December we all enjoyed an excellent state of health; the natives also continued their friendly behaviour to us, except in their incorrigible disposition to stealing, which they never failed to indulge when an opportunity offered, and which the most attentive vigilance on our part could not always prevent. The thermometer, during the month of November, was from  $26^{\circ}$  to  $28^{\circ}$ , and in December it fell to  $20^{\circ}$ , where it continued the greatest part of the month.

We had now, at noon, but a very faint and glimmering light, the meridian sun not being higher than  $6^{\circ}$ , and that obscured from us by hills  $22^{\circ}$  high, to the southward of us. While we were thus locked in, as it were, from the cheerful light of day, and the vivifying warmth of solar rays, no other comforts presented themselves to compensate, in any degree, for the scene of desolation which encircled us. While tremendous mountains forbade almost a sight of the sky, and cast their nocturnal shadows over us in the midst of day, the land was impenetrable, from the depth of snow, so that we were excluded from all hopes of any recreation, support, or comfort, during the winter, but what could be found in the ship and in ourselves. This, however, was only the beginning of our troubles.

The new year set in with added cold, and was succeeded by some very heavy falls of snow, which lasted till the middle of the month. Our decks were now incapable of resisting the intense freezing of the night, and the lower parts of them were covered an inch thick with an hoary frost that had all the appearance of snow, notwithstanding three fires were kept

constantly burning twenty hours out of the twenty-four; so that when they were first lighted, the decks were all afloat. For some time, we kept in the fires night and day, but the smoke which proceeded from a temporary stove, made out of one of the forges, was so very troublesome that the people, who were now falling ill, were fully convinced that this continual smoke was the cause of their sickness. After the heavy fall of snow, we had twelve down with the scurvy, and towards the end of the month four died, and the number encreased to twenty-three who were confined to their beds, amongst whom was the surgeon, who was extremely ill. The first officer, on finding himself slightly affected in the breast, a symptom which generally foreboded a fatal determination in a very few days, got rid of it by continually chewing the young pine branches, and swallowing the juice; but, from the unpleasant taste of this medicine, few of the sick could be prevailed upon to persist in taking it.

At the latter end of February, the disorder had increased, and no less than thirty of our people were so ill that none of them had sufficient strength to get out of their hammocks; four of them died in the course of the month. Indeed, at this time our necessaries were so far exhausted, that if the more violent symptoms of the disorder had abated, there was a want of proper food, &c. to complete the cure. These melancholy circumstances were rendered more afflicting by the hopeless minds of the crew; for such was the general discouragement amongst them that they considered the slightest symptoms of the disorder to be a certain prelude of death.

During the months of January and February



February, the thermometer continued, for the greater part, at fifteen, though it sometimes fell to 14 deg. Notwithstanding this extreme cold, we were visited, as usual, by the natives, who had no other clothing but their frocks, made of the skin of sea-otters and seals, though chiefly of the latter, with the fur on the outside. But whatever protection these dresses gave to their bodies, their legs remained uncovered, and without any apparent inconvenience.

They appeared to be as much distressed, for want of provisions, as ourselves, and as we had several casks of the whale blubber, which had been collected for oil, they used, whenever they came on board, under a pretence that the weather was too boisterous for them to engage in whale hunting, to entertain a regale of this luxurious article, which was always granted, to their great comfort and satisfaction. In their opinion, it was owing to our not taking the same delicious and wholesome nourishment, that such a terrible and alarming sickness prevailed amongst us.

We were, at first, much surprized at their being informed of the death of our people, and the places where we had buried them. They particularly pointed to the edge of the shore, between the cracks of the ice, where, with considerable labour, we had contrived to dig a shallow grave for our boatswain, who, for his piping, had attracted their particular notice and respect. We, indeed, at first imagined that they contrived to watch these melancholy ceremonies, in order to dig up the bodies for a banquet, as we had no doubt but that they were of the cannibal tribe: we, however, soon after discovered that they obtained their intelligence from the constant watch they kept, to prevent any other bands of natives from coming to trade with us, without giving them a share of their profits, whatever they might be.

As they paid us daily visits, we imagined that their place of habitation was at no very great distance,

though we had never been able to discover it; but we now learnt that they were a vagrant people, without any fixed place of abode, sleeping where they could, and when they had the inclination; and that they made no distinction between day and night, wandering about as much during the one as the other. They never made any fires in the night, for fear of being surprized by those tribes with whom they seem to be in a continual state of hostility, and who must have come across the ice to attack them; for as they had no knowledge of snow shoes, the woods were wholly impassable.

The month of March brought no alleviation of our distresses. It was as cold as the months which preceded it. In the early part of it there fell a great deal of snow, which increased the number of the sick, and the violence of the disorder in those who were already afflicted by it. In the course of this month, we had the melancholy office of performing the last imperfect obsequies to the remains of the surgeon and the pilot. These were heavy misfortunes, and the loss of the former, at a moment when medical knowledge was so necessary, must be considered, by all who read this, as a consummate affliction.

The first officer, finding a return of his complaint, applied to the same means of relief which had been so successful before, exercise and the juice of the pine tree. He made a decoction of the latter, which was extremely nauseous, and very difficult, though very much diluted, to keep on the stomach. It operated immediately as an emetic, before it became a progressive remedy; and, perhaps, this very effect, by cleansing the stomach, aided the future salutary operations of this anti-scorbutic medicine. The second officer, and one or two of the seamen, persisting in the same regimen, found similar benefit, and were recovered from a very reduced state; but it was one of the unfortunate symptoms of this melancholy disorder to be averse to motion,

and to find pain bordering on anguish, in attempting to use that exercise which is the predominant remedy.

Having lost our forgeon, we were now deprived of all medical aid. Every advantage the sick could receive from the most tender and vigilant attention, they received from myself, the first officer, and a seaman, who were in a state to do them that service. But still we continued to see and lament a gradual diminution of our crew from this terrible disorder. Too often did I find myself called to assist in performing the dreadful office of dragging the dead bodies across the ice, to a shallow sepulchre, which our own hands had hewn out for them on the shore. The sledge on which we fetched the wood was their hearth, and the chasms in the ice their grave: but these imperfect rites were attended with that sincerity of grief which does not always follow the gorgeous array of funeral pride to sepulchral domes. Indeed, the only happiness, or to express myself with more accuracy, the only alleviation of our wretchedness, was when we could absent ourselves from the vessel, and get away from hearing the groans of our afflicted people, in order to find relief in a solitary review of our forlorn situation. All our cordial provisions had long been exhausted; we had nothing to strengthen and support the sick, but biscuit, rice, and a small quantity of flour, but no kind of sugar, or wine, to give with them. Of salt beef, and pork, there was no deficiency; but even if it had been a proper food, the aversion of the people to the very sight of it, would have prevented its salutary effects. Fish, or fowl, was not our offering of the winter here. A crow, or a sea-gull, were rare delicacies, and an eagle, one or two of which we killed, when they seemed to be hovering about, as if they would feed upon us, instead of furnishing us with food, was a feast indeed. Our two goats, a male and a female, of the same age, and who had been our

companions throughout the voyage, were at length reluctantly killed, and served the sick, with broth, &c. made of their flesh, for fourteen days.

Though we were at the latter end of March, there was, as yet, no change in the weather;—the cold still continued its inhospitable severity:—we now, however, began to derive some hopes from seeing the sun, which had been so long obscured from us, just peep at noon over the summits of the mountains. The thermometer had, during this month, been for the most part at  $15^{\circ}$  and  $16^{\circ}$ , though it had sometimes risen to  $17^{\circ}$ .

The early part of the month of April was very frosty, with violent winds. Towards the middle of it, we had some very heavy southerly gales, which precedes the summer in these high latitudes, as the northerly ones prevail throughout the winter.

The change of wind produced, as may be supposed, a sensible alteration in the air; but it brought heavy showers of snow, and did not become stationary; so that with the return of the north wind, it became as cold as ever. In short, during the latter part of this month there was a continual combat of the opposing winds, which were the more disagreeable, as it occasioned thick and hazy weather. While the south wind prevailed, the sick people grew worse, and in the course of this month, four Europeans and three Lascars died. The second officer and the seaman who entered upon the pine juice regimen, were now so far recovered as to get upon deck to receive the short but welcome visit of the sun. This circumstance induced many of the sick men to apply to the decoction, and some of them were persuaded to continue it; but in general, it was neglected, with a determination to die at their ease, (according to their manner of expression) rather than be tormented by such a nauseous and torturing remedy.

Towards the end of the month, in the mid-day sun, the thermometer rose

rose to  $32^{\circ}$ , but at night it fell below the freezing point to  $27^{\circ}$ , during the last three days in this month. The natives brought us some herring and sea-fowl; the fish I myself distributed to the sick, and no words can express the eager joy which animated their haggard countenances on receiving such a comfortable and refreshing meal; and every encouragement was, of course, given to the natives to procure a constant supply of this strengthening food.

These people now began to console us with an assurance that the cold would soon be gone. They had, indeed, always made us understand, that the summer would commence about the middle of May, by counting the number of moons. The sun now began to make a large circle over the hills, and at mid-day it was exceedingly reviving; the supplies of fish were also frequent, and we began to feel hopes that the remaining part of us would get out of this desolate abode, and return again to our own country. These circumstances gave such a turn to the spirits of the people,

that many of them consented to be brought upon deck to feel the rays of the sun, who fainted when they approached the air. It is very singular that many of them who preserved astonishing spirits, and would say or do any thing, who appeared, in short, as if they were free from all disorder while they were in bed, would, from the most trifling motion, or only touching the side of their hammocks, be thrown into such agonizing pains, and successive faintings, that every moment might be supposed to be their last. In this state they would remain for near half an hour, before they recovered.

By the sixth of May, there was an astonishing change in every thing around us; the seamen who had not been very much reduced, recovered miraculously, from drinking the decoction; we now had as much fish as we could eat, with a great variety of sea-fowl, with which the natives daily provided us.—We had also seen several flights of geese and ducks pass over us, but none had as yet come within our reach.

#### CEREMONIES ATTENDING THE INAUGURATION OF THE INFANT LAMA, IN TIBET.

FROM THE ASIATIC RESEARCHES.

THE Emperor of China appears on this occasion, to have assumed a very conspicuous part in giving testimony of his respect and zeal for the great religious father of his faith. Early in the year 1784, he dismissed ambassadors from the court of Pekin to Teeshoo Loomboo, to represent their sovereign in supporting the dignity of the high priest, and do honour to the occasion of the assumption of his office. Dalia Lama, and the viceroy of Lassa, accompanied by all the court, one of the Chinese generals stationed at Lassa, with a part of the troops under his command, two of the four magistrates of the city, the heads of every monastery throughout Tibet, and the Emperor's ambas-

sadors, appeared at Teeshoo Loomboo, to celebrate this epocha in their rheological institutions. The 28th day of the seventh moon, corresponding nearly, as their year commences with the vernal equinox, to the middle of October, 1784, was chosen as the most auspicious for the ceremony of inauguration: a few days previous to which, the Lama was conducted from Terpalang, the monastery in which he had passed his infancy, with every mark of pomp and homage that could be paid by an enthusiastic people. So great a concourse as assembled, either from curiosity or devotion, was never seen before, for not a person of any condition in Tibet was absent who could

join the suite. The procession was hence necessarily constrained to move so slow, that though Terpaling is situated at the distance of twenty miles only from Teshoo Loomboo, three days expired in the performance of this short march. The first halt was made at Tfor-duc, the second at Summaar, about six miles off; where the most splendid parade was reserved for the Lama's entry on the third day; the account of which is given to me by a person who was present in the procession. The road, he says, was previously prepared by being whitened with a wash, and having piles of stones heaped up, with small intervals between on either side. The retinue passed between a double row of priests, who formed a street, extending all the way from Summaar, to the gates of the palace. Some of the priests held lighted rods, of a perfumed composition, that burn like decayed wood, and emit an aromatic smoke; the rest were furnished with the different musical instruments they use at their devotions, such as the gong, the cymbal, hautboy, trumpets, drums and sea shells, which were all sounded in unison with the hymn they chanted.

The croud of spectators were kept without the streets, and none admitted on the high road but such as properly belonged to or had a prescribed place in the procession, which was arranged in the following manner.

"The van was led by three military commandants or governors of districts, at the head of 6 or 7000 horsemen, armed with quivers, bows and match locks. In their rear followed the ambassador with his suite, carrying his diploma, as is the custom of China, made up in the form of a large tube, and fastened on his back. Next, the Chinese general advanced, with the troops under his command, mounted and accoutred after their way, with fire-arms and sabres; then came a very numerous group, bearing the various standards and insignia of state; next to them moved a full band of wind and other sonorous in-

struments; after which, were led two horses richly caparisoned, each carrying two large circular stoves, disposed like panniers across the horses back, and filled with burning aromatic woods. These were followed by a senior priest, called a Lama, who bore a box, containing books of their form of prayer and some favourite idols. Next five sumptuary horses were led, loaded with the Lama's apparel; after which, came the priests immediately attached to the Lama's person for the performance of the daily offices in the temple, amounting to about 700; following them, were two men, each carrying on his shoulder a large cylindrical gold insignium, embossed with emblematical figures, (a gift from the Emperor of China.) The Duhunniers and Soopoons, who were employed in communicating addresses and distributing alms, immediately preceded the Lama's bier, which was covered with a gaudy canopy, and borne by eight of the sixteen Chinese appointed for this service; on one side of the bier attended the regent, on the other, the Lama's father. It was followed by the heads of the different monasteries, and as the procession advanced the priests who formed the street, fell in the rear, and brought up the suite, which moved at an extremely slow pace, and about noon was received within the confines of the monastery, amidst an amazing display of colours, the acclamations of the croud, solemn music, and the chanting of their priests.

The Lama being safely lodged in the palace, the Regent and Soopoon Choomboo went out, as is a customary compliment paid to visitors of high rank, on their near approach, to meet and conduct Dalia Lama, and the Viceroy of Lassa, who were on the way to Teshoo Loomboo. Their retinues encountered the following morning, at the foot of Painon Castle; and the next day together entered the monastery of Teshoo Loomboo, in which both Dalia Lama, and the Viceroy were accommodated during their stay.

The



The following morning, which was the third day after Teeshoo Lama's arrival, he was carried to the great temple, and about noon seated upon the throne of his progenitors; at which time, the Emperor's ambassador delivered his diploma, and placed the presents with which he had been charged at the Lama's feet.

The three next ensuing days, Dalia Lama met Teeshoo Lama in the temple, where they were assisted by all the priests, in the invocation and public worship of their gods. The rites they performed, completed, as I understand, the business of inauguration. During this interval, all who were at the capital were entertained at the public expence, and alms were distributed without reserve. In conformity, likewise, to previous notice circulated every where for the same space of time, universal rejoicings prevailed throughout Tibet. Banners were unfurled on all their fortresses, the peasantry filled up the day with music and festivity, and the night was celebrated by general illuminations.

A long period was afterwards employed in making presents and public entertainments to the newly-inducted Lama, who, at the time of his accession to the Musnud, or, if I may use the term, Pontificate of Teeshoo Loomboo, was not three years of age. The ceremony was begun by Dalia

Lama, whose offerings are said to have amounted to a greater value, and his public entertainments to have been more splendid than the rest. The second day was dedicated to the viceroy of Lassa; the third to the Chinese general: then followed the Culloung, or magistrates of Lassa, and the rest of the principal persons who had accompanied Dalia Lama; after which the regent of Teeshoo Loomboo, and all that were dependent on that government, were severally admitted, according to pre-eminence of rank, to pay their tributes of obeisance and respect. As soon as the acknowledgements of all those were received who were admissible to the privilege, Teeshoo Lama made, in the same order, suitable returns to each, and the consummation lasted forty days.

Many importunities were used with Dalia Lama to prolong his stay at Teeshoo Loomboo, but he excused himself from encumbering the capital any longer with so numerous a concourse of people as attended on his movements, and, deeming it expedient to make his absence as short as possible from the seat of his authority, at the expiration of forty days he withdrew, with all his suite, to Lassa, and the Emperor's ambassador received his dismissal to return to China; and thus terminated this famous festival.

OF THE GOVERNMENT, PUBLIC BUILDINGS, FORTS, AND PLACES OF RESIDENCE OF THE RAJAHS OF INDIA.

FROM SKETCHES OF THE HINDOOS, LATELY PUBLISHED.

THE government throughout Hindostan seems to have been anciently, as it is now, feudal; and, if we may judge from the apparently happy state of those countries where the destructive hand of the conqueror has not yet been felt, and from the inviolable attachment which the Hindoos bear to their princes, we must conclude that, under their native so-

vereigns, they were governed on principles of the most just and benevolent policy. In these countries, the lands were highly cultivated; the villages were composed of neat and commodious habitations, and filled with cheerful inhabitants; and wherever the eye turned it beheld the marks of the mild protection of the government, and of the ease and in-

dusty of the people. Such was Tanjore, and some other provinces, not many years ago.

Under the government of the Hindoo emperors, there were several kings, or *great rajahs*, who were immediately subordinate to the emperor; and other inferior rajahs, or nobles, who paid tribute to their respective superiors, and who, when summoned to the field, were obliged to attend them, with a certain number of men in arms, in proportion to the value of their possessions. Besides the estates of the rajahs, there were other hereditary lands, belonging to persons of less note, and some that were appropriated to charitable and religious purposes. We likewise find that in many parts of Hindostan, certain lands, or commons, were attached to the different villages, which were cultivated by the joint labours of their inhabitants. The care of these lands was committed to the elders of the village, and their produce applied to assist such of the community as stood in need of it, to defray the expences of festivals, and to pay dancers and players, who might occasionally be employed for the amusement of the village.

The ryots, or peasants, were allowed a certain portion of the harvest by the lord or proprietor of the land, with which they maintained their families, provided and kept their cattle, and were furnished with seed for the succeeding season. The portion given to the peasants seems to have varied, and to have been chiefly determined by the fertility or barrenness of the soil, the ease or difficulty of cultivation, or the abundance or failure of the harvest.

In countries that are plentifully supplied with water, the labour of the husbandman is much diminished, and his crops are generally very abundant; but on the coast of Coromandel, where the soil is for the most part sandy, and water scarce, greater

exertions are required, which is often but scantily repaid.

In such countries as have not the advantage of being watered by considerable rivers, or in such parts where the water cannot be conveyed from them to the adjacent fields, tanks were made, which being filled during the periodical rains, furnished water for the rice fields, and for the cattle, in the dry seasons. Some of these reservoirs are of great extent, and were made by enclosing deep and low situations with a strong mound of earth.\* Others, of less magnitude, for the use of temples, towns, or gardens, are of a quadrangular form, lined with stone, descending, in regular steps, from the margin to the bottom.

In the towns, as well as in most of the villages, are choultries, or public buildings, for the reception of travellers, which were erected and endowed by the munificence of the prince, the generosity of some rich individual, or, not uncommonly, in consequence of some pious vow.

A Brahman resides near, who furnishes the needy traveller with food, and a mat to lie upon; and, contiguous to them is a tank, or well, that those who halt may have it in their power to perform their ablutions before they eat or proceed on their journey.

The *Dowahs*, or temples, called by the Europeans *pagodas*, are still very numerous, especially in the southern provinces, and some of them of such remote antiquity that no account is left, either in writing, or by tradition, when, or by whom, they were erected. But the northern provinces being first conquered, the seat of the Mahomedan government fixed, and its greatest force exerted in those parts, most of the temples were destroyed, the images of stone broken, and those of metal melted, to cover the floors of mosques and palaces, that the faithful Mussulman should

\* On the banks of the great tanks are generally found a choultry and a temple.

have the satisfaction daily to trample on what had been held sacred by the Hindoo.

The temples at Hurdwar, where the Ganges enters Hindostan; at Matra, the supposed birth place of Krishna; at Oudgein, at Benares, and at Jaggernaut, on the coast of Orix; a temple on the top of a mountain at Trippety, about forty miles N. E. of Arcot; one of some islands called Seringham, which is formed by the rivers Cavery and Coleroon, near Trichanopoly; and one on the island of Ramasseran, between Ceylon and the Continent, seem from the most distant times, to have been constantly held in the highest veneration; there are also many others that are much resorted to; but of all those of which I have any knowledge, I believe that in Seringham is the largest. At the Pagoda of Jaggernaut, people of all casts and ranks eat at the same board, without distinction or pre-eminence. This is peculiar to that place, being no where else allowed; and the permission or rather order for the pilgrims of different casts to eat together, is said to be in commemoration of their hero and philosopher Krishna, who always recommended complacency and affection for each other. A great quantity of victuals is every day prepared, and after being placed before the altars, is partaken of by the pilgrims. The Brahmans belonging to this Pagoda pretend, that it was built by order of the Emperor, at the beginning of the Kaly-Young, in honour of Vishnow, by whom the house of Pandoo was peculiarly protected.

There is a pile of ruins on the coast of Coromandel, near Sadras, called, by Europeans, from the number of its towers, *the seven Pagodas*, by the natives, Malavipatan. It appears that it was once a temple and palace of great extent. Most of the characters and hieroglyphics with which the walls abound, are no longer understood; and though tradition informs us, that it was once at a considerable distance from the shore,

when the tide is at flood, most of the ruins are now covered with the water.

The temples at Salsette, which are hewn out of the solid rocks, and contain an incredible number of pillars, and figures in bas-relief, announce a work of such astonishing labour, that the people are firmly persuaded it could not be executed by men, but was performed by genii, by order of the gods.

The Hindoo poets frequently mention *Dnarka*, as a place highly celebrated. It is said to have stood at the extremity of the peninsula, and to have been swallowed up by the sea, a few days after the death of Krishna.

At the hour of public worship, the people are admitted to a peristyle, or vestibule, the roof of which in the large Pagodas is supported by several rows of pillars; and while the Brahmans pray before the image, and perform their ceremonies, the dancing women dance in the court, or under the portico, singing the praises of their god, to the sound of various musical instruments.

The inauguration of a temple is attended with great ceremony, and proportional expence. After it is completely finished, the Brahmans are perhaps obliged to wait several months before they find, by their astrology, a fit day for that solemnity. The day is afterwards annually celebrated, and is called *the feast of the Dewal*. Every temple is dedicated to some particular deity, and each has its annual feast, beginning with the day on which the inauguration was performed; it lasts ten days, and to temples that are held in particular veneration, pilgrims resort on that occasion from almost every part of Hindostan. Few come without an offering, by which means alone, the revenue of some of the temples is rendered very considerable; but in the countries that are under the Mahomedan yoke, the Brahmans, as well as the pilgrims, are usually taxed by the government.

Throughout

Throughout Hindostan we meet with many places of defence, which, from their construction, as well as by tradition, appear also to be of great antiquity, and seem designed to resist the force of time, as well as of the enemy. These alone are sufficient to shew, the human laws of Brimha could not secure the mild Hindoos from being disturbed by the fatal effects of ambition; and that the passions in every climate are too powerful to be restrained, even by the wisest and most salutary regulations. The building of places of security we find commanded by the law itself.

Some of these fortresses are by situation so strong as to baffle all the efforts of art in a regular attack, and are only to be reduced by surprise or famine. Such is the fort now called Dowlatabad, near Aurengabad, Golcondah, near to Hydrobad, Gualior, and many others. But these seem only to have been intended by the natives as places of retreat in case of need, and for the security of their families and treasures in time of danger; and not for their usual residence, or the defence of the country.

In open and plain countries, the forts are constructed with high walls, linked by round towers, and are enclosed by a wet or dry ditch. The Rajah and his family dwell within the fort, nearly adjoining to which is the town, or pettah.

The place of residence of the Poligar Rajahs, or those whose possessions are in woody and hilly countries, is frequently found surrounded with an impervious thicket, closely planted with bamboos and other thorns. A road leads from the country through the thicket to an area in the centre of it, sometimes forming a plain of several miles in circumference, in the middle of which is the town. Should it be near to mountains, a road similar to the other communicates with them on the opposite side, the entrance to which is commonly defended by a fort, or a deep trench and breast work. These roads are narrow, prolonged by frequent windings, and intersected by barriers; and when an attack is apprehended, they are rendered impassable by cutting ditches and felling trees. By such frequent interruptions, the progress of the troops towards the town is necessarily slow, during which they are liable to be constantly annoyed by those who may be concealed in the thickets. Even the common roads through the *Polams*, or possessions of these Rajahs, have generally impervious woods on each side, and gateways or barriers across, which, besides serving as a defence, are intended for the purpose of levying a duty on merchandise.

#### TO THE EDITORS OF THE

#### LITERARY MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

IT is, I believe, generally understood, that the beast, mentioned in the Revelations, is typical of the Popish Sec. There are three verses in those writings relative to the mark and number of the beast, very peculiar indeed; and various have been the elucidations. Permit me to remark, that the *Pope* carries on his cap the following title, *Petrus Filius Dei*; or as others say, *Petrus Dei generalis in Terris*. Now, the numerical letters in either of these inscriptions, summarily make up the number *Six hundred*,

*threescore and six*; which is said to be the number of the beast—the number of a man. “Here is Wisdom.” Let him that hath understanding, or (as the Bible of 1599 gives it) Wit, count the number of the beast; for it is the number of a Man; and his number is six hundred threescore and six.

*Vicarius Filii Dei*  
5 1 100 15 150 11 500 1

OR

*Vicarius Dei Generalis in Terris*  
5 1 100 1 5 500 1 50 1 1 1  
Rev. c. xiii. v. 16, 17, 18.



## EXPERIMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS ON ELECTRICITY.

BY MR. WILLIAM NICHOLSON; COMMUNICATED BY SIR JOSEPH BANKS,  
BART. P. R. S.

FROM THE PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS.

**L.** A Glass cylinder was mounted, and a cushion applied with a silk flap proceeding from the edge of the cushion, over its surface, and thence half round the cylinder. The cylinder was then excited, by applying an amalgamed leather in the usual manner. The electricity was received by a conductor, and passed off in sparks to Lane's electrometer. By the frequency of these sparks, or by the number of turns required to cause spontaneous explosion of a jar, the strength of the excitation was ascertained.

1. The cushion was withdrawn about one inch from the cylinder, and the excitation performed by the silk only. A stream of fire was seen between the cushion and the silk, and much fewer sparks passed between the balls of the electrometer.

3. A roll of dry silk was interposed, to prevent the stream from passing between the cushion and the silk. Very few sparks then appeared at the electrometer.

4. A metallic rod, not insulated, was then interposed, instead of the roll of silk, so as not to touch any part of the apparatus. A dense stream of electricity appeared between the rod and the silk, and the conductor gave very many sparks.

5. The knob of a jar being substituted in the place of the metallic rod, it became charged negatively.

6. The silk alone, with a piece of tin foil applied behind it, afforded much electricity, though less than when the cushion was applied with a light pressure. The hand being applied to the silk as a cushion, produced a degree of excitation seldom equalled by any other cushion.

7. The edge of the hand answered as well as the palm.

8. When the excitation by a cushion was weak, a line of light appeared at the anterior part of the cushion, and the silk was strongly disposed to receive electricity from any uninsulated conductor. These appearances did not obtain when the excitation was by any means made very strong.

9. A thick silk, or two or more folds of silk, excited worse than a single very thin flap. I use the silk which the milleners call Persian.

10. When the silk was separated from the cylinder, sparks passed between them; the silk was found to be in a weak negative, and the cylinder in a positive state.

The foregoing experiments shew that the office of the silk is not merely to prevent the return of electricity from the cylinder to the cushion, but that it is the chief agent in the excitation; while the cushion serves only to supply the electricity, and, perhaps, increase the pressure at the entering part.

There likewise seems to be little reason to doubt but that the disposition of the electricity to escape from the surface of the cylinder is not prevented by the interposition of the silk, but by a compensation, after the manner of a charge; the silk being then as strongly negative as the cylinder is positive: and, lastly, that the line of the light between the silk and cushion, in weak excitations, does not consist of returning electricity; but of electricity which passes to the cylinder, in consequence of its not having been sufficiently supplied during its contact with the rubbing surface.

11. When the excitation was very strong in a cylinder newly mounted, flashes of light were seen to fly across its inside, from the receiving surface to the surface in contact with the cushion, as indicated by the brush figure. These made the cylinder ring as if struck with a bundle of small twigs. They seem to have arisen from part of the electricity of the cylinder taking the form of a charge. This appearance was observed in a nine-inch and a twelve-inch cylinder, and the property went off in a few weeks. Whence it appears to have been chiefly occasioned by the rarity of the internal air produced by handling, and probably restored by gradual leaking of the cement.

12. With a view to determine what happens in the inside of the cylinder, recourse was had to a plate machine. One cushion was applied with its silken flap. The plate was nine inches in diameter, and two-tenths of an inch thick. During the excitation, the surface opposite the cushion strongly attracted electricity, which it gave out when it arrived opposite the extremity of the flap; so that a continual stream of electricity passed through an insulated metallic bow, terminating in balls, which were opposed, the one to the surface opposite the extremity of the silk, and the other opposite the cushion; the former ball shewing positive, and the latter negative signs. The knobs of two jars being substituted in the place of these balls, the jar applied to the surface opposed to the cushion, was charged negatively, and the other positively. This disposition of the back surface seemed, by a few trials, to be weaker, the stronger the action of the cushion, as judged by the electricity on the cushion side.

Hence it follows, that the internal surface of a cylinder is so far from being disposed to give out electricity, during the friction by which the external surface acquires it, that it even greedily attracts it.

13. A plate of glass was applied to

the revolving plate, and thrust under the cushion in such a manner as to supply the place of the silk flap. It rendered the electricity stronger, and appears to be an improvement of the plate machine; to be admitted if there were not essential objections against the machine itself.

14. Two cushions were then applied on the opposite surfaces, with their silk flaps, so as to clasp the plate between them. The electricity was received from both by applying the finger and thumb to the opposite surfaces of the plate. When the finger was advanced a little towards its corresponding cushion, so that its distance was less than between the thumb and its cushion, the finger received strong electricity, and the thumb none; and, contrariwise, if the thumb were advanced beyond the finger, it received all the electricity; and none passed to the finger. This electricity was not stronger than was produced by the good action of one cushion applied singly.

15. The cushion in experiment 12 gave most electricity when the back surface was supplied, provided that surface was suffered to retain its electricity till the rubbed surface had given out its electricity.

From the two paragraphs, it appears that no advantage is gained by rubbing both surfaces; but that a well-managed friction on one surface will accumulate as much electricity as the present methods of excitation seem capable, but that when the excitation is weak, on account of the electric matter not passing with sufficient facility to the rubbed surface, the friction enables the opposite surface to attract or receive it, and if it be supplied, both surfaces will pass off in the positive state, and either surface will give out more electricity than is really induced upon it, because the electricity of the opposite surface forms a charge. It may be necessary to observe, that I am speaking of the facts, or effects, produced by friction; but how the rubbing surfaces act upon each other

to produce them, whether by attraction, or otherwise, I do not here enquire.

It will hereafter be seen that plate machines do not collect more electricity than cylinders (in the hands of the electrical operators of this metropolis) do with half the rubbed surface; which is a corroboration of the inference here made.

16. When a cylinder is weakly excited, the appearances mentioned (par. 8.) are more evident, the more rapid the turning. In this case, the avidity of the surface of the cylinder beneath the silk is partly supplied from the edge of the silk, which throws back a broad cascade of fire. From these causes it is that there is a determinate velocity of turning required to produce the maximum of intensity in the conductor. The stronger the excitation, the quicker may be the velocity; but it rarely exceeds five feet of the glass to pass the cushion of the second.

17. If a piece of silk be applied to a cylinder, by drawing down the ends, so that it may touch half the circumference, and the cylinder be then turned and excited, by applying the amalgamed leather, it will become very greedy of electricity during the time it passes under the silk. And if the entering surface of the glass be supplied with electricity, it will give it out at the other extremity of contact; that is to say, if insulated conductors be applied at the touching ends of the silk, the one will give and the other receive electricity, until the intensities of their opposite states are as high as the power of the apparatus can bring them; and these states will be instantly reversed by turning the cylinder in the opposite direction.

As this discovery promises to be of the greatest use in electrical experiments, because it affords the means of producing either the plus or minus states in one and the same conductor, and of instantly repeating experiments with either power, and without any change of position or ad-

justment of the apparatus, it evidently deserved the most minute examination.

18. There was little hope (par. 6) that cushions could be dispensed with; they were, therefore, added, and it was then seen that the electrified conductors were supplied by the difference between the action of the cushion which had the advantage of the silk and that which had not; so that the naked face of the cylinder was always in a strong electric state. Methods were used for taking off the pressure of the receiving cushion, but the extremity of the silk, by the construction, not being immediately under that cushion, gave out large flashes of electricity with the power that was used. Neither did it appear practicable to present a row of points, or other apparatus, to intercept the electricity which flew round the cylinder; because such an addition would have materially diminished the intensity of the conductor, which, in the usual way, was such as to flash into the air from rounded extremities of four inches diameter, and made an inch and a half ball become luminous, and blow like a point. But the greatest inconvenience was, that the two states with the backward and forward turn were seldom equal; because the disposition of the amalgam on the silk, produced by applying the leather to the cylinder in one direction of turning, was the reverse of what must take place when the contrary operation was performed.

Notwithstanding all this, as the intensity with the two cushions was such as most operators would have called strong, the method may be of use; and I still mean to make more experiments when I get possession of a very large machine which is now in hand.

19. The more immediate advantage of this discovery is, that it suggested the idea of two fixed cushions, with a moveable silk flap and rubber. Upon this principle, which is so simple and obvious, that it is wonderful it should have been so long overlooked, I have constructed a machine with

one conductor, in which the two opposite and equal states are produced by the simple process of loosening the leather rubber, and letting it pass round with the cylinder (to which it adheres) until it arrives at the opposite side, where it is again fastened. A wish to avoid prolixity prevents my describing the mechanism by which it is let to go, and fastened in an instant, at the same time that the cushion is made either to press or is withdrawn, as occasion requires.

20. Although the foregoing series of experiments naturally lead us to consider the silk as the chief agent in excitation, yet, as this business was originally performed by a cushion only, it becomes an object of enquiry to determine what happens in this case.

21. The great Beccaria inferred, that in a simple cushion, the line of fire which is seen at the extremity of contact, from which the surface of the glass recedes, consists of returning electricity; and Dr. Nouth grounded his happy invention of the silk flap upon the same supposition. The former asserts, that the lines of light, both at the entering and departing parts of the surface, are absolutely similar; and thence infers, that the cushion receives on the one side, as it certainly does on the other. I find, however, that the fact is directly contrary to this assertion; and that the inference ought to be made, as far as this indication can be reckoned conclusive, for the entering surface exhibits many luminous perpendiculars to the cushion; and the departing surface exhibits a neat, uniform, line of light. This circumstance, together with the consideration that the line of light behind the silk in par. 8 could not consist electricity, shewed the necessity of farther examination: I therefore applied the edge of the hand as a rubber, and by occasionally bringing forward the palm, I varied the quantity of electricity which passed near the departing surface. When this was the greatest, the sparks at the electrometer were the

most numerous. But, as the experiment was liable to the objection that the rubbing surface was variable, I passed a piece of leather upon a thin flat piece of wood, then amalgamed its whole surface, and cut its extremity off in a neat right line, close to the wood. This being applied, by the constant action of a spring against the cylinder, produced a weak excitation, and the line where the contact of the cylinder and leather ceased, (as abruptly as possible) exhibited a very narrow fringe of light. Another piece of wood was prepared, of the same width as the rubber, but one quarter of an inch thick, with its edges rounded, and its whole surface covered with tin foil. This was laid on the back of the rubber, and was there held by a small spring, in such a manner as that it could be slid on ward, so as occasionally to project beyond the rubber, and cover the departing and excited surface of the cylinder, without touching it. The sparks at the electrometer were four times as numerous when this metallic piece was thus projected; but no electricity was observed to pass it and the cylinder. The metallic piece was then held in the hand, to regulate its distance from the glass; and it was found that the sparks at the electrometer increased in number as it was brought nearer, until light appeared between the metal and the cylinder, at which time they became fewer, the nearer it was brought, and at last ceased when it was in contact.

The following conclusions appear to be deducible from these experiments. 1. The line of light on a cylinder departing from a simple cushion, consists of returning electricity; 2. the projecting part of the cushion compensates the electricity upon the cylinder, and by diminishing its intensity prevents its striking back in such large quantities as it would otherwise do; 3. that if there were no such compensation, very little of the excited electricity would be carried off; and, 4. that the compensation is diminished, or the intensity increased



in an higher ratio than that of the distance: the compensating substance: because if it were not, the electricity which has been carried off from an indefinitely small distance, would never fly back from a greater distance and from the edge of light.

22. I hope the considerable intensity I shall speak of will be an apology for describing the manner in which I produce it. I wish the theory of this very obscure process were better known; but no conjecture of mine is worth mentioning; the method is as follows:

Clean the cylinder, and wipe the silk.

Grease the cylinder by turning it against a greased leather, till it is uniformly obscured. I use the tallow of a candle.

Turn the cylinder till the silk flap has wiped off so much of the grease as to render it semi-transparent.

Put some amalgam on a piece of leather, and spread it well, so that it may be uniformly bright. Apply this against the turning cylinder, the friction will immediately encrease, and the leather must not be removed until it ceases to become greasy.

Remove the leather, and the action of the machine will be very strong.

My rubber, as before observed, consists of the silk flap pasted to a leather, and the cushion is pressed against the silk by a slender spiral spring in the middle of its back. The cushion is loosely retained in a groove, and rests against the spring only, in such a manner, that by a sort of libration upon it as a fulcrum, it adapts itself to all the irregularities of the cylinder, and never fails to touch in its whole length. There is no adjustment to vary the pressure, because the pressure cannot be too small when the excitation is properly made. Indeed, the actual withdrawing of the cushion to the distance of one tenth of an inch from the silk, as in part 2, will not materially effect a good excitation.

The amalgam is that of Dr. Higgins, composed of zinc and mercury. If a little mercury be added to melted

zinc, it renders it easily pulverable, and more mercury may be added to the powder, to make a very soft amalgam. It is apt to chrysalize by repose, which seems in some measure to be prevented by triturating it with a small proportion of grease; and it is always of advantage to triturate it before using. A very strong excitation may be produced by applying the amalgamed leather to a clean cylinder with a clean silk. But it soon goes off, and is not so strong as the foregoing, which lasts several days.

23. To give some distinctive criterions, by which other electricians may determine whether the intensity they produce exceeds or falls short of that which this method affords, I shall mention a few facts.

With a cylinder seven inches diameter, and cushion eight inches long, three flashes at a time constantly flew out of the three-inch ball in a succession too quick to be counted, and a ball of one inch and half diameter was rendered luminous, and produced a strong wind like a point. A nine-inch cylinder with an eight-inch cushion, occasioned frequent flashes from the round end of a conductor 4 inches diameter, with a ball of 2 inches and half diameter; the flashes ceased now and then, and it began to appear luminous; a ball of 1 inch and half diameter first gave the usual flashes; then, by quicker turning, it became luminous, with a bright speck moving about on its surface, while a constant stream of air rushed upon it: and, lastly, when the intensity was greatest, brushes of a different kind from the former appeared. These were less luminous, but better defined in the branches, many started out at once with a hoarse sound. They were reddish at the stem, sooner divided, and were greenish at the point next the ball, which was brass. A ball 4-10ths of an inch diameter was surrounded by a steady faint light; enveloping its exterior hemisphere, and sometimes a flash struck out at the top; when the excitation was strongest, a few flashes struck out sideways. The horizontal diameter of the light

was longest, and might measure one inch, the stem of the ball being vertical.

This last phenomenon is similar to a natural event related by M. Luami Baldwin, who raised an electrical kite in July, 1771; during the approach of a severe thunder storm, and observed himself to be surrounded by a rare medium of fire, which, as the cloud rose nearer the zenith, and the kite rose higher, continued to extend itself with some gentle faint flashes. Mr. Baldwin felt no other effect than a general weakness in his joints and limbs, and a kind of listless feeling; all which he observes might possibly be the effect of surprize, though it was sufficient to discourage him from persisting in any further attempt at that time. He therefore drew in his kite, and retired to a shop till the storm was over, and then went to his house, where he found his parents and friends much more surprised than he had been himself; who, after expressing their astonishment, informed him that he appeared to them (during the time he was raising the kite) to be in the midst of a large bright flame of fire, attended with flashings; and that they expected every moment to see him fall a sacrifice to the flame. The same was observed by some of his neighbours, who lived near the place where he stood.

This fact is similar to another observed by M. De Saussure, on the Alps, and both are referable to my luminous ball with the second kind of broth. The cloud must have been negative. With a 12-inch cylinder, and the rubber of 7 inches and half, a 5-inch ball gave frequent flashes, upwards of 14 inches long, and sometimes a 6-inch ball would flash. I do not mention the long spark, because I was not provided with a favourable apparatus for the two larger cylinders. The 7-inch cylinder affords a spark of 10 inches 3/4ths at best. The 9-inch cylinder, not having its conductor insulated on a support sufficiently high, afforded flashes to the table which was 14 inches distant. And

the 12-inch cylinder being mounted only as a model or trial for constructing a larger apparatus, is defective in several respects, which I have not thought fit to alter. When the 5-inch ball gives flashes, the cylinder is enveloped on all sides with fire, which rushes from the receiving part of the conductor. I never use points, but in a simple machine bring the conductor almost in contact with the cylinder. In this apparatus, that cushion to which the rubber is not applied, serves that purpose.

24. These marks exhibit the intensity as deduced from simple electrifying. I will now mention the rate of charging, which was nearly the same in all three cylinders.

A large jar of 350 square inches, or near two and a half square feet, with an uncoated varnished rim, of more than 4 inches in height, was made to explode spontaneously over the rim. The jar, when broken, proved to be 0.82 inches thick on an average; and the number of square feet of the surface of the cylinder which was rubbed to produce the charge of one foot, was when least, 18.03 and when most, with good excitation, 19.34. The great machine at Harlem charges a single jar of one foot square, by the friction of 66.6 square feet, and charges its battery of 225 square feet at the rate of 94.8 square feet rubbed for each foot. The intensity of electricity on the surface of the glass is therefore considerably less than one-fourth of that here spoken of; but if we take the most favourable number, 66.6 at the commencement of turning, and halve it on account of the unavoidable imperfection of a plate machine, (as shewn in par. 14.) it will be found, that the management applied to that machine would cause a cylinder to charge one foot by the friction of 33 1/2 square feet. It must be observed, however, M. Van Marum's own machine, consisting of two plates, 33 inches diameter, has only half the intensity, though he reckons it a very good one. This machine is about equal in absolute power

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power to my quick cylinder, with its short rubber; but it is near thirty times as dear in price. In all these deductions I omit the computations, for the sake of brevity, and because they are easily made. The data are found in the description of the Teylerian machine, and its continuation, published at Harlem, in 1785 and 1787.

I shall here take the liberty of observing, that the action of the cylinder, by a simple cushion or the hand, which excited the astonishment of all Europe, in the memory of our cotemporaries, was first im-

proved by the addition of a leathern flap; then by moistening the rubber; afterwards by applying to the amalgam; and lastly by the addition of a silk flap. Now I find by experiment, that we obtain upwards of forty times the intensity which the bare hand produces; and consequently that, since eighteen times our present intensity will equal the utmost we can now condense on strong glass even in the form of a charge; we have a less step to take before we arrive at the amazing power, than our immediate predecessors have already made.

A VOYAGE FROM ST. DOMINGO TO NEW ORLEANS, PART OF A TOUR ROUND THE WORLD, BY PAGES, CAPTAIN IN THE FRENCH NAVY, KNIGHT OF THE ORDER OF ST. LOUIS, AND CORRESPONDENT OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

[Continued from Page 105.]

**D**URING my stay at New Orleans, which was only six days, a trader of that place caused a canoe, with five oars, to be equipped and loaded with merchandize for the Indian trade in the vicinity of Natchitoches. I took this opportunity, and having embarked, we departed on the 4th of August. This canoe was about thirty-five feet long, about four broad; and was built to go quick, and steer well. It was formed out of one large hollowed tree, it had a kind of prow forward, raised more than two feet, in form of a shell half opened; this was shaped very sharp, to throw off the water at the bottom of the falls, and the current in going up them, and to prevent the canoe from being sunk. We were eight in all on board; that is, five rowers, two of which were Indians, a Canadian, who had just come from his own country by land; two seamen, who were afterwards changed for two savages; the master of the canoe, the proprietor and myself.

The rapidity of the current, and the many embarrassments we met

with, did not permit us to go above four leagues in a day. They call *embarrassments*, one or more drift trees whose branches stick fast in the bottom or sides of the river; they usually lay across the river, and form a kind of dyke or bank, which, altering the course of the current, gives it a greater degree of rapidity; this makes the navigation difficult, as the canoes are in danger of being wrecked, or of sticking fast on the trunks or branches.

Both sides of the river are well cultivated with Indian corn and indigo: they abound with fruit trees, particularly peaches. The settlements appeared more regular, and extended farther into the woods, than those we had seen below the city. I perceived on each side of the river, some pretty country houses, with fine gardens, all which belonged to the French colonists. A few leagues from the city we saw a settlement of Germans, who at least, were not inferior in any thing to the French. Further on there are two settlements inhabited by Acadian refugees, who being the last settled, have

have neither the same conveniences, nor equal cultivation with the former. These settlements are stopped on the left shore, by a canal, which communicates with lake Pontchartrain. Here the island of Louisiana, which is formed by the sea, the river, the canal, lake Pontchartrain and the river Mobile ends. It is reckoned thirty leagues from hence to New Orleans; and this space is intirely settled with inhabitants, at a little distance from each other.

We afterwards found on the left shore, some villages of Indians, called Chactaws and Tounicas, from whence came those whom I had seen at New Orleans. Some distance beyond, on the right side, is a branch of the river, which runs into the sea to the south-west. We saw also some habitations on that side. A few days after we arrived at a considerable French settlement, named *Pointe-coupée*, or Cut-point: this is situated also on the same side. Tobacco is the only production found here, more than in Louisiana; the quality of the soil and the form of the houses are nearly alike. The inhabitants have the same manners and customs as at New Orleans, except that they are a little less polished, for although they are well clothed on holidays, they are commonly dressed like hunters, with a shirt only, without breeches, and covered only at the waist by a piece of cloth. The women within doors go without a shift, their shoulders and necks bare, having nothing but a common petticoat. This place, which is well and agreeably peopled, has in its neighbourhood many lakes, which reach to the *Aperoussas*, another French establishment to the westward. A little higher, on the other side of the river, is an Indian town, but has little more than the name. They make use of muskets and tomahawks, as do those we had already seen.

During the summer the inhabi-

tants cultivate fruit and maize, in winter they hunt; part of what they take supports them, the surplus they sell to the Europeans. They will sometimes work for hire, and two of our rowers having fallen sick, we replaced them by two savages.

In time of mourning they let their beards grow, which, at other times, they are very careful to pluck out; they have very little beard, and only on the chin, about two lines\* in length. At the Phillippines I observed the same kind and thinness of beard; and I think it is the same with the people of most hot countries who have not mixed their blood with the natives of cold climates. These savages weep over the tombs of their relations. One of them had just lost his wife, and let his new beard grow, as a mark of his sensibility: he had engaged to go with us, in order to quit those places which revived the remembrance of his loss. One day, going a small distance from us to give free vent to his grief, which appeared profound, he gave us an opportunity to remark, that having unexpectedly seen his daughter, a girl about twelve years old, who was bathing in the river with her companions, he turned his eyes from her, and shed tears. The little female savage perceiving it, left her amusement, and retired sorrowful to her cabin. Both sexes swim well, and not as we do, but to their armpits only, springing forward with force, and beating the water with their feet and hands. The other savage we hired was young, and had a young wife, who parted from him with regret. We were fearful she would dissuade him from his voyage and it was with difficulty we drew him from her remonstrances. A blanket for him, and a piece of red cloth for his wife, were the temptations which subdued his tenderness; so true it is, that covetousness is the great destroyer of social qualities. However, before he would

\* A line is the twelfth part of a French inch.



finally determine, he had many new affairs called him to his cabin. They were continually interchanging advice, and regaling together on bruised maize, boiled with fish; they could not resolve to separate. We at last fixed him; and to divert him from being tempted to leave us, removed the canoe a distance from his cabin, to the other end of the village.

This town may contain sixty huts, they are made like all others belonging to the Indians, with large trees planted in a circle, and joined at the top in form of a cone. The small distance between each tree is filled up by branches, and the whole being compactly secured together and covered with mud, prevents the entrance of the rain. Except at the door-way there is a large bench all round, made with small pieces of wood ranged close to each other, and covered with a mat of reeds; this bench serves them for beds. The fire is in the centre, and the smoke goes out either at the door or by a hole left in the cieling, where the trees are brought to join. The cabins of the chiefs have another open cabin or gallery opposite to the entrance, about three or four paces distant, which serves them to take the air, and to screen them from the heat of the sun. The latter is only covered with leaves or reeds, and supported by four or six pillars; this serves for the assembly of the nation. Here they receive strangers, and pass their leisure time either in sleeping, or smoking their tomahawks. The latter is a kind of battle axe, the handle of which is usually hollow, and serves as a tube to communicate with the back of the axe, on which is a pipe for tobacco, made of iron.

As we approached any of the villages our arrival was announced by a cry, made by the first Indian who saw us. The chief and the heads among them assembled before the chief's cabin, and dispatched one of their body to us. We usually presented them with a bottle of *taffia*, or spirits extracted from the sugar cane, this was however optional. They

amply returned the present in poultry, fish, or fruit; they then offered us some tobacco to smoke, mixed and softened with a red leaf of the form of the peach leaf. In short, they received us much better than, as strangers, we had been in any European village.

These Indians are tall and well made, the features of their faces are large, yet not harsh. They appear to have a great respect for old men; they marry very young, and seem to have much affection for their wives, whom they may repudiate, but that seldom happens. The women have little communication with the men, who appear strangers to the passion of jealousy, and only employ themselves in war, hunting, or fishing. The cultivation of the earth, which produces a great number of peach trees, and wherein they sow maize, gourds, and melons; the care of the house, the transportation of their effects in long journeys, and dressing the productions of the hunt or fishing, are the occupations of the women. They cover their waists with deer skins, and in winter time, they use European blankets, or the skins of the Illenois' ox. This animal much resembles the European ox; except that it has a rising or lump upon the shoulders like that of India. The savages dress the skins of this animal very well, with the hair on, which is thicker than woollen, as soft as silk, and makes excellent cloathing against the cold.

I was surprised to see the women fasten their children on boards, which serve them for beds; these boards do not reach above the shoulders of the child, consequently the head hangs down: there they leave them, taking no other care than to suckle them.

They make use of plants in their surgery, and particularly leaves of *squine*, which are excellent for wounds; but for physick they have no other prescription but diet and water.

Lastly, these people appeared to me affable, humane, laborious, and brave. A union reigns equally in their

their families and their villages. Their exactness in complying with the reciprocal duties from the young man to the aged; from the father to the son; from the husband to the wife: their good reception of strangers, and the little fear they stand in of their enemies, have given me the best opinion of their kindness, affability, and courage. The latter, both we and the Spaniards have often experienced. They were at this time preparing for an incursion against the English, with whose neighbourhood they were not pleased. They endure great trouble and fatigue in the long journeys they undertake to hunt; they are neither to be deterred by the rapidity of rivers, or the barrenness of the earth, which has yet received no advantage from the labour of man.

Pursuing our voyage, we passed two islands, which forming three passages, make the navigation of the river very difficult. The majesty of this river, which is apparent even at this distance from the sea, made me think it one of the most beautiful and most extensive in the world; for after navigating eight hundred leagues upwards, neither its breadth or depth afforded the least prospect of our drawing near its source. Its waters are the best I have yet drank, and the sides are ornamented with trees of a prodigious height, particularly the cypresses. The principal rivers which run into it, are the Red, the Black, the Missouri, and the Fine rivers. It communicates with several lakes, and even with those in the neighbourhood of Canada, to which they go all the way in canoes, except at some small carrying places.

We had, however, much trouble to conquer the current, and sometimes, when we were in the middle of a rapid, often laboured half an hour to gain a fathom. I was frequently obliged to take the oar to prevent our being driven back, and to supply the weakness of our young savage, whom change of food had made sick. Notwithstanding this labour, the pleasure of seeing these places so new to me,

amply recompensed me for all my fatigues. Sometimes we saw shores of sand and gravel, on which, a weak current had left some enormous scattered trees, which lay with their roots and branches half rotten and dried by the sun, and seemed to shew by their faint colour, that they had been dead many ages. Near these low and marshy places, I saw several crocodiles creeping, abominable both from their smell and form. In other places, where the river ran regularly, we were entertained with a flat shore, covered with large trees, supported by their own large branches, which, after intermixing, bend down to the earth. Through the thickness of the wood, we sometimes saw little meadows or marshes, or a plain soil covered with a shade inaccessible to the rays of the sun, and sometimes embarrassed with large trees, which had fallen through age. Some of them, which, from the colour and solidity of the bark, we thought sound, crumbled to dust on touching them with the hand. Where the shore of the river was bold, where the rapidity of the waters marked the contraction of the river, sometimes the fallen earth presented prodigious roots of trees without support, and announced the fall of the trunk already inclining; sometimes the earth, entirely undermined, giving way by its own weight, brought down the trees which stood on it, making as it came down, a confused noise by the fall of the earth and the breaking of their branches, which might be heard at a distance. Two of these falls we heard when full a league distant, the noise of which, augmented and repeated by the echo formed by the immense height of the woods on the sides of the river, produced a kind of sound entirely new to me.

We advanced, however, though slowly, and saw, from time to time, habitations and cow-houses, belonging either to the French or English, the possessors of which had preferred a life not much removed from that of the savage, to that in which they had been brought up. I have often re-

marked

marked the natural inclination many of us have for this kind of life. I have seen several who have embraced it; but I never saw any savage who has shewn the like inclination for our manners and customs. It is only by a length of time that our customs, procuring them necessaries with greater ease, gives them an idea of cultivated life, and, by degrees, engages them in our way of living.

We had been running north twenty-four leagues, when we reached the mouth of the Red River, which comes from the west. Nachitoches laying that way, we went up this river. Its red and muddy water makes it far inferior to that we had left. It is true the current was not so rapid: it was, however, no longer that majestic river the Mississippi, which I had so much admired; a gentle stream succeeded to its rapidity, and the banks were low and muddy. The woods, less ancient and thicker, were here and there divided by marshy meadows: every thing shewed nature in a less majestic view, checked by the quantity of waters which overflow these parts in winter. We saw many Indian fowl, at least as large as ours, fly over the river in a swift manner, and the deer feeding quietly in the meadows. We soon passed the pike\* of the wall and the mouth of the Black River, which comes from the N. W. We pursued our voyage by the Red River. Near the shores of the Black River, the land was not so low, and the landscape more agreeable. The woods of the Mississippi again appeared in sight. We began to see some bears, and I was told there was also a kind of tiger in those parts. We refreshed ourselves at the house of an old French officer, who had banished himself to this place with a wife and some negro

slaves, to cultivate the earth and tend his flocks.

After a navigation of some days, we arrived at the bottom of a little fall, of about eight feet. There were in this place two French houses, the inhabitants of which had married savages, and had also given their daughters in marriage to savages. We engaged one of these Frenchmen to pilot our canoe, which it was necessary to unload; and the savages from a neighbouring village came to assist us in getting up the fall, which was occasioned by a kind of slope made by the water in the bed of the river. The pilot remained in the canoe. All, without distinction, ranged themselves to two cords, at the upper part of the fall, when hauling the canoe with force, and following the directions of the pilot, we got it up. They then reloaded it, and we proceeded. Two leagues above, we had the same business to do again, at another fall: we were then only twenty leagues from Nachitoches, but the most difficult part was still to come. This day we all of us who were in health laboured without distinction, for we had two men sick: the employment of a rower is the most laborious of any I know. We slept but little at night, on the shore of the river, which is a sand, not very dry. We were there almost devoured with insects, and surrounded with crocodiles, which, even in the day time, came to the sides of the river, in search of the remains of our meals. The society of two negroes and two savages, our fellow-labourers, was a new scene to me, on account of their rusticity.

On the third day, we came to another fall, at the top of which was a lake, justly called the Muddy Lake. The pilot we had engaged at the first fall carried us across this lake. The

\* This *Acor*, or *Pike*, is an eminence, called so on account of its sharp or pointed elevation above the rest of the country, which, for a very considerable space round, is overflowed during winter. It is consequently the only spot capable of being inhabited; and if it was so, must be regarded as the key to the Red River, and consequently to the N. E. parts of New Spain, the rich productions of which are well known; for as to the rout by land, by way of the *Aperouillas*, it is too marshy to be passable.

river appears to have had formerly another course, for in this place it extends and loses itself, having little or no current, for a space of about three leagues circumference. There was in this lake only half a foot of water, over a bottom of very thin mud, full of roots and trunks of trees, fallen down by age or rotted by the water. To lighten the canoe, we were obliged to stand in the water, and push her before us: we had therefore no small trouble to get her along. Notwithstanding all our care, the canoe was every minute fast upon the trunks of trees, where she stuck, and was not released without much labour. We were often obliged to stand in the water up to our waists, and seldom escaped without some hurt on our legs and thighs, by the stumps of trees and shells, hid under water.

We had a little relaxation, after having passed this lake, until we arrived at the rapid; this is a very strong current, formed by a steep declivity of the river and many other impediments. Our other passages were only troublesome, but this was really dangerous. Had our canoe deviated in the least from the course of the current, we had infallibly perished. We happily passed it, and two days after, being the 12th of September, arrived at a place called the *Great Obstruction*. In this the river has its course among heaps of trees, which being accumulated across each other, have stopped the passage, or formed small islands, which have increased, in time, by such things as the stream brings down with it. We laboured hard with our axes, to make a passage; but as this was a tedious operation, and as Nachitoches was not a league distant, I went thither by land.

In the neighbourhood of this place was the cabin of a Creole, who had married a savage: we dined with him, and he entertained us very well.

The neighbourhood of the French post caused the woods to be frequented by hunters and the keepers of the

flocks; and they, cutting the woods every day for their wants, make them much like ours. After having passed through them, we came to a large meadow, with some scattered fields, cultivated with Indian corn and tobacco. At a distance, on an eminence by the side of the river, was a square, surrounded with large trees, fixed in the earth like stakes, and very near each other. This served the settlement as a fort. Some distance behind it, were some small wooden houses, ranged in a line, although at considerable distances from each other. Some others appeared also scattered about, to the number of about seventy, and these formed the whole of the French settlement in this place, which is their storehouse for the Indian trade up the river called Cado. This village and fort commanded the other river, and presented to our view a large meadow covered with horses and cows. The prospect was bounded on every side by woods.

I lived with the proprietor of the canoe, but was badly accommodated both in food and lodging. The house was dirty and small, and we had very bad bread, mixed with Indian corn and rice. I regretted the borders of the river, and the biscuit on which we had lived since we left New Orleans, although it had been damaged before we left the Mississippi. It is not to be imagined how much the stink of the urine and excrements of the crocodiles infect the air on the Red River. The biscuit had been so impregnated with it that, as we ate it, we fancied we were chewing stinking or tainted musk: but I had promised myself to make some stay in this country; and a few meals of turkeys and venison made me amends for the bad cheer I received from my host.

They reckon that Nachitoches is one hundred and fifty leagues distant from New Orleans to the north-west: it is pretty well peopled, considering its size. The inhabitants, like all those of Louisiana, are lively, well made, and inured to fatigue: they go up



up the rivers, to the distance of four or five hundred leagues, with their whole family, either to hunt or trade, and they are sometimes out on such business eighteen months at a time.

Some among them apply particularly to the hunting of bears, which is only done in the winter, when they are fat, and produce much oil. This animal usually takes up his abode in the hollow of the cypress tree, which is open at top. The hunter watching him in, and by the help of hooks ascends a neighbouring tree. He is furnished with a musquet and fire

lance; and when he gets sight of the opening, throws in the flaming lance. The affrighted animal comes out, and during the time he is coming down, the hunter shoots him in the head, or shoulders. He falls, and the hunter continues to fire till he kills him. I received information, in this place, respecting the possessions of the Spaniards, and learned, with pleasure, that they were not above seven leagues distant; that it was the post of the Adaës, or Adaißes, and that a governor of the province, called Tega, lived there.

VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF LITERATURE IN ENGLAND, WITH  
OCCASIONAL REVIEWS OF SOME OF THE MOST CELEBRATED  
WORKS.

No. II.

**B**UT the great glory of his country, and his age, was Alfred, justly stiled the Great, a prince who appeared at a time the most unfavourable for the acquisition of knowledge. His education was totally neglected in his youth, but as soon as he acquired a taste for learning, he made a surprizing progress, and by inviting learned men to his court, soon acquired that knowledge which his countrymen were incapable of teaching him. In him we meet with abilities and accomplishments truly astonishing. When very young, he is said to have been twice at Rome, and from the impression received there, may probably be attributed his close attention to letters.

This prince is certainly one of the most illustrious characters recorded in history. His military and political talents, his private virtues, and his personal knowledge, all combine to set him far above any other prince that ever swayed the English sceptre. Add to which, he was the best poet and mathematician of his age. His knowledge he did not keep confined to his own breast, but endeavoured, by every means, to disseminate it among his countrymen. With this

noble view, he undertook his literary works, which do him infinite honour. The catalogue of them alone shews their value: some of them relate to those essential points, law, government, and religion; others are for the more immediate use of the people. These works are, 1. *Breviarium quoddam collectum ex legibus Trojanorum*; 2. *Visi Saxonum leges*; 3. *Instituta quedam*; 4. *Contra Judices iniquas*; 5. *Acta Magistratum suorum*; 6. *Regum fortuna variæ*; 7. *Disa Sapientum*; 8. *Parabolæ et soles*; 9. *Epistola ad Wosfigium episcopum*; 10. *Manuale Meditationum*. Besides these original works, he translated several authors from the Latin into the Saxon language, as Bede's History of England, Orosius's History of the Pagans, St. Gregory's Pastoral, &c. The first of these, with his prefaces to the others, and his laws, were printed at Cambridge 1644.

In Alfred (says a modern author) we may behold what amazing effects may be produced by the genius and abilities of one man. Such was the influence he had on the nation that in a few years it was transformed into quite another people. The English, from being cowardly, poor, despica-  
ble,

ble, and ignorant, became rich, respectable, and, comparatively speaking, knowing and polite.

This great prince took care to provide schools for the education of youth; but his noblest design was the laying the foundation of the university of Oxford, and allowing proper stipends for the support of the masters and scholars. Literature now revived, but continued but for a short time, for in the tenth century, on the death of Alfred, the Danes renewed their ravages, and the English relapsed into their former ignorance. But this was not owing to the neglect of their princes. His son Edward is said to have founded the university of Cambridge. Yet both her and her sister seminary were, in the latter end of this century, reduced to ashes by these barbarians. His successor, Athelstan, is confessed to be an illustrious and accomplished prince: it is said he caused the Bible to be translated out of the Hebrew into the Saxon language.

The eleventh century beheld England subject to the Normans. This was certainly a most important revolution in politics, and had great influence on letters. The Normans had certainly made much greater advances in literature than the Saxons. William the Conqueror had received a good education, was fond of the conversation of men of letters, and greatly encouraged them in their pursuits: this brought over some of the most eminent scholars to England, who assisted greatly in the advancement of knowledge.

But still we must observe, with regret, that this knowledge was converted to the support of superstition and ecclesiastical power. This will appear by a review of their works, for, from the conquest to the death

of Stephen, we find but few historians, and the rest are mostly writers on theological subjects.

Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, though an Italian, yet as he possessed the first dignity of the church, may be named here. His genius and erudition is greatly extolled. His writings consist of Commentaries on St. Paul's Epistles, Sermons on various Subjects, and his celebrated treatise on the eucharist, against Berenger, which last has rendered him a great favourite with a certain set of men.

Ingulphus, Abbot of Croyland, wrote *Historia Monasterii Croylandensis*, ab An. 664 ad 1091. This book was published inter 5 scriptores, by Sir H. Saville, London, 1596, and has been since published at Frankfort and at Oxford. In this work he intersperses many occurrences respecting the history of England: he is particularly severe on King Harold, which may be accounted for by his relationship to the Conqueror.

Of writers on theology, Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, in the reign of William Rufus and Henry I. stands conspicuous. He was a foreigner, and a Monk. His dispute with William Rufus is well known. He was certainly the most voluminous writer of the age, having left behind him no less than 36 different works, of which there have been several editions; but the best is that of Father Gerberon, printed at Paris 1675.

In the latter end of this, or beginning of the next century, one Geoffrey, a schoolmaster of Dunstable, wrote a dramatic piece, called St. Catherine, which was acted by his scholars, and is supposed to be the first dramatic exhibition in this kingdom.

## VARIOUS CUSTOMS IN ABYSSINIA, SIMILAR TO THOSE OF PERSIA.

FROM MR. BRUCE'S TRAVELS.

THE crown of Abyssinia is hereditary, and has always been so in one family, supposed to be that of Solomon by the Queen of Saba, Negista Azab, or Queen of the south. It is nevertheless elective in this line; and there is no law of the land, nor custom, which gives the eldest son an exclusive right.

The practice has indeed been quite the contrary: when, at the death of a king, his sons are old enough to govern, and by some accident not yet sent prisoners to the mountains, then the eldest, or he that is next, and not confined, generally takes possession of the throne by the strength of his father's friends; but if no heir is then in the low country, the choice of the king is always according to the will of the minister, which passes for that of the people; and his inclination and interest being to govern, he never fails to choose an infant, whom thereafter he directs, ruling the kingdom absolutely during the minority, which generally exhausts, or is equal to the term of his life.

From this flow all the misfortunes of this unhappy country. This very defect arises from a desire to institute a more than ordinary perfect form of government; for the Abyssinians first position was, "Woe be to the kingdom whose king is a child;" and this they know must often happen, when succession is left to the course of nature. But when there was a choice to be made out of two hundred persons all of the same family, all capable of reigning, it was their own fault, they thought, if they had not always a prince of proper age and qualification to rule the kingdom, and to preserve the succession of the family in the house of Solomon.

The king is anointed with plain

oil of olives, which, being poured upon the crown of his head, he rubs into his long hair, indecently enough with both his hands, pretty much as his soldiers do with theirs, when they get access to plenty of butter.

The crown is made in the shape of a priest's mitre, or head-piece; it is a kind of helmet, covering the king's forehead, cheeks, and neck. It is lined with blue taffety, the outside is half gold and half silver, of the most beautiful filigree work.

The crown in Joas' time, was burned, with part of the palace. The present was since made by the Greeks from Smyrna, who have large appointments here, and work with great taste and elegance, though they have not near so much encouragement as formerly.

Upon the top of the crown was a ball of red glass, or chrystal, with several bells of different colours with it. It seems to me to have formerly been no better than part of the stopper of a glass-decanter.

Be that as it may, it was lost in Yafou's time, at the defeat of Sennaar. It was found, however, by a Mahometan, and brought by the chief of the Bertuma Galla, to the frontiers of Tigré, where Michael, governor of that province, went with an army in great ceremony to receive it, and returning with it, gave it to King Yafous, making thereby a great advance towards the king's favour.

Some people, among the other unwarranted things they have advanced, have said, that at the king's coronation a gold ear-ring is put into his ears, and a drawn sword into his hand, and that all the people fall down and worship him; but there is no such ceremony in use, and exhibitions of this kind, made by the king in public, at no period seem to have suited the genius of this

this people. Formerly, his face was never seen, nor any part of him, excepting sometimes his foot. He sits in a kind of balcony, with lattice windows and curtains before him. Even yet he covers his face on audiences, or public occasions, and when in judgment. On cases of treason, he sits within his balcony, and speaks through a hole in the side of it, to an officer, called *Kal-Hatzé*, the "voice or word of the king," by whom he sends his questions, or any thing else that occurs, to the judges, who are seated at the council table.

The king goes to church regularly, his guards taking possession of every avenue and door through which he is to pass, and nobody is allowed to enter with him, because he is then on foot, excepting two officers of his bed-chamber, who support him. He kisses the threshold and side-post of the church door, the steps before the altar, and then returns home: sometimes there is service in the church, sometimes there is not; but he takes no notice of the difference. He rides up stairs into the presence-chamber on a mule, and lights immediately on the carpet before his throne; and I have sometimes seen great indecencies committed by the said mule, in the presence chamber, upon a Persian carpet.

An officer, called *Serach Massery*, with a long whip, begins cracking and making a noise, worse than twenty French postillions, at the door of the palace before the dawn of day. This chafes away the hyena, and other wild beasts; this, too, is the signal for the king's rising, who sits in judgment every morning, fasting, and about eight o'clock he goes to breakfast.

There are six noblemen of the king's own choosing, who are called *Baalomaal*, or gentlemen of his bed-chamber; four of these are always with him. There is a seventh, who is the chief of these, called *Azeleffael Camisha*, groom of the robe, or stole. He is keeper of the king's

wardrobe, and the first officer of the bed-chamber. These officers, the black slaves, and some others, serve him as menial servants, and are in a degree of familiarity with him unknown to any of the rest of his subjects.

When the king sits to consult upon civil matters of consequence, he is shut up in a kind of box, opposite to the head of the council table. The persons that deliberate sit at the table, and, according to their rank, give their voices, the youngest or lowest officer always speaking first. The first that give their votes are the *Shalaka*, or colonels of the household troops; the second are the great butlers, men that have the charge of the king's drink; the third is the *Badjerund*, or keeper of that apartment in the palace called the *lion's house*; and after these are the keeper of the banqueting-house. The next is called like *Lika Maguass*, an officer that always goes before the king, to hinder the pressure of the crowd. In war, when the king is marching, he rides constantly round him, at a certain distance, and carries his shield and his lance; at least, he carries a silver shield, and a lance pointed with the same metal, before such kings as do not choose them to their person. That, however, was not the case in my time, as the king carried the shield himself, black, and unadorned, of good buffalo's hide, and his spear sharp pointed with iron. His silver ornaments were only used when the campaign was over, when these were carried by this officer. Great was the respect shewed formerly to this king in war, and even when engaged in battle with rebels, his own subjects.

No prince ever lost his life in battle till the coming of the Europeans into Abyssinia, when both the excommunicating and murdering of their sovereigns seem to have been introduced at the same time.

The insignia, or marks of royalty, are a white horse with small silver bells at his head, a shield of silver,

and



and a white fillet of fine silk or muslin, but generally the latter, some inches broad; which is tied round the upper part of the head over his hair, with a large double or bow-knot behind, the ends hanging down to the small of his back, or else flying in the air.

After the Lika Magwaf comes the Palambarus; after him, the Fit-Auranis; then the Gera Kasmati, and the Kanya Kasmati, their names being derived from their rank or order in encamping, the one on the right, the other on the left of the king's tent; Kanya and Gera signifying *the right* and *the left*: after them, the Dakalin Billetana Geieta, or the under chamberlain; then the secretary for the king's commands; after him, the right and left Azages, or generals; after them Rah Masfery; after him the Batha; after him Kasmaty of Damot, then of Samen, then Amhara; and last of all Tigré, before whom stands a golden cup upon a cushion, and he is called Nebret, as being governor of Axum, or keeper of the book of the law supposed to be there.

After the governor of Tigré comes the Acab Saat, or guardian of the fire and chief ecclesiastical officer of the king's household. Some have said that this officer was appointed to attend the king at the time of eating, and that it was his province to order both meat and drink to be withdrawn whenever he saw the king inclined to excess. If this was really his office, he never used it in my time; nor, as far as I could learn, for several reigns before. Besides, no king eats in public, or before any person but slaves; and he never could chuse that time to commit excess, in which he might be controuled by a subject, even if it was that subject's right to be present when the king eats, as it is not.

After the Acab Saat comes the first master of the household; then the Betwadit or Ras; last of all, the king gives his sentence, which is final, and sends it to the table from the

balcony where he is then sitting, by the officer called as aforementioned, Kal-Hatzé.

We meet in Abyssinia with various usages, which many have hitherto thought to be peculiar to those ancient nations in which they were first observed; others, not so learned, have thought they originated in Abyssinia. I shall first take notice of those that regard the king and court.

The kings of Persia, like these we are speaking of, were eligible in one family only, that of the Arsacidae, and it was not till that race failed they chose Darius. The title of the King of Abyssinia is, *King of Kings*; and such Daniel tells us was that of Nebuchadnezzar. The right of primogeniture does not prevail in Abyssinia, as to exclude election in the person of the younger brothers, and this was likewise the case in Persia.

In Persia a preference was understood to be due to the king's lawful children; but there were instances of the natural child being preferred to the lawful one. Darius, though a bastard, was preferred to Istogius, Xerxes' lawful son, and that merely by the election of the people. The same has always obtained in Abyssinia. A very great part of their kings are adulterous bastards; others are the issue of concubines, as we shall see hereafter, but they have been preferred to the crown by the influence of a party, always under the name of the voice of the people.

Although the Persian kings had various palaces to which they removed at different times in the year, Pasargarda, the metropolis of their ancient kings, was observed as the only place for their coronation; and this, too, was the case in Abyssinia with their metropolis of Axum.

The next remarkable ceremony in which these two nations agreed, is that of adoration, inviolably observed in Abyssinia to this day, as often as you enter the sovereign's presence. This is not only kneeling, but an absolute prostration. You first fall upon your knees, then upon the palms of

your hands, then incline your head and body till your forehead touch the earth; and, in case you have an answer to expect, you lie in that posture till the king, or somebody from him, desires you to rise. This, too, was the custom of Persia: Arrian says this was first instituted by Cyrus, and this was precisely the posture in which they adored God, mentioned in the book of Exodus.

Though the refusal of this ceremony would, in Abyssinia and Persia, be looked upon as rebellion, or insult, yet it seems, in both nations, to have met with a mitigation, with regard to strangers, who have refused it, without giving any offence. I remember a Mahometan being twice sent by the Prince of Mecca into Abyssinia, during my stay there, who, neither time, would go farther than to put his hands across upon his breast, with no very great inclination of his head; and this was not thought extraordinary as to give offence, as it was all he did to his own sovereign and master.

We read, indeed, of a very remarkable instance of the dispensing with that ceremony being indirectly, yet plainly, refused, in Persia, to strangers. Conon, the Athenian, had occasion for an interview with Artaxerxes, King of Persia, upon matters of great concern to both states: "You shall be introduced to the king by me," says the Persian minister to Conon, "without any delay; do you only first consider with yourself whether it is really of any consequence that you should speak with the king yourself, or whether it would not be as well for you to convey to him, by letter, any thing you have to say; for it is absolutely necessary, if you are introduced into the king's presence, that you fall down upon your face and worship him. If this is disagreeable or offensive to you, your business shall nevertheless be equally well and quickly done by me." To which Conon very sensibly replied, "For my part,

"it never can be offensive to me to shew every degree of respect possible to the person of a king. I only am afraid that this salutation may be misinterpreted by my citizens, who, being themselves a sovereign state, may look upon this submission of their ambassador as a reproach to themselves, and inconsistent with their independency." Conon, therefore, desired to waive his introduction, and that his business might be done by letters, which was complied with accordingly.

I have already mentioned, transiently, the circumstance of the king not being seen when sitting in council. The manner of it is this: when he had business formerly, he sat constantly in a room of his palace, which communicated with the audience and council by two folding doors or large windows, the bottom of which were about three steps from the ground. These doors, or windows, were latticed with cross bars of wood, like a cage, and a thin curtain, or veil, of taffety silk, was hung within it; so that, upon darkening the inner chamber, the king saw every person in the chamber without, while he himself was not seen at all. Justin tells us that the person of the King of Persia was hid, to give a greater idea of his majesty; and under Deioces, King of the Medes, a law was made that nobody might look upon the king: but the constant wars in which Abyssinia has been engaged, since the Mahometans took possession of Adel, have occasioned this troublesome custom to be wholly laid aside, unless on particular public occasions, and at council, when they are still observed with the ancient strictness. And we find, in the history of Abyssinia, that the army and kingdom have often owed their safety to the personal behaviour and circumstance of the king distinguishing and exposing himself in battle, which advantage they must have lost, had the ancient custom been observed. However, to this day, when he is abroad, riding, or sitting in any of his apartments at home,

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where people are admitted, his head and forehead is perfectly covered, and one of his hands covers his mouth; so that nothing but his eyes are seen: his feet, too, are always covered.

We learn from Apuleus, that this was a custom in Persia; and this gave an opportunity to the magi to place Oropastus, the brother of Cambyfes, upon the throne, instead of Merdis, who should have succeeded; but the covering of the face made the difference pass unperceived.

It is the constant practice in Abyssinia to beset the king's doors and windows, within his hearing, and there, from early morning to night, to cry for justice as loud as possible, in a distressed and complaining tone, and in all the different languages they are masters of, in order to their being admitted, to have their supposed grievances heard.

In a country so ill governed as Abyssinia is, and so perpetually involved in war, it may be easily supposed there is no want of people who have real injuries and violence to complain of: but if it were not so, this is so much the constant usage, that when it happens (as in the midst of the rainy season) that few people can approach the capital, or stand without in such bad weather, a set of vagrants are provided, maintained, and paid, whose sole business it is to cry and lament, as if they had been really very much injured and oppressed; and this, they tell you, is for the king's honour, that he may not be lonely, by the palace being too quiet. This, of all their absurd customs, was the most grievous and troublesome to me; and, from a knowledge that it was so, the king, when he was private, often permitted himself a piece of rather odd diversion to be a royal one.

There would sometimes, while I was busy in my room, in the rainy season, be four or five hundred people, who, all at once, would begin, some roaring and crying, as if they were in pain, others demanding justice, as if they were that moment

suffering, or if in the instant to be put to death; and some groaning and sobbing, as if just expiring; and this horrid sympathy was so artfully performed that no ear could distinguish but that it proceeded from real distress. I was often so surprized as to send the soldiers at the door to bring in one of them, thinking him come from the country, to examine who had injured him; many a time he was a servant of my own, or some other equally known; or, if he was a stranger, upon asking him what misfortune had befallen him, he would answer very composedly nothing was the matter with him; that he had been sleeping all day with the horses; that hearing from the soldiers at the door I was retired to my apartment, he and his companions had come to cry and make a noise under my window, to do me *honour* before the people, for fear I should be melancholy, by being too quiet when alone; and therefore hoped that I would order them drink, that they might continue with a little more spirit. The violent anger which this did often put me into did not fail to be punctually reported to the king, at which he would laugh heartily; and he himself was often hid not far off, for the sake of being a spectator of my heavy displeasure.

These complaints, whether real or feigned, have always for their burden *Rete O Jan boi*, which, repeated quick, very much resembles Prete Janni, the name that was given to that prince, of which we never yet knew the derivation: its signification is, "Do me justice, O my king!"

Herodotus tells us, that, in Persia, the people, in great crowds, and of both sexes, come roaring and crying to the doors of the palace; and Intapherres is also said to come to the door of the king, making great lamentations.

I have mentioned a council of state held in Abyssinia, in time of danger or difficulty, where the king, sitting invisible, though present, gives his opinion by an officer called Kal-

Hatzé,

Hatzé. Upon his delivering the sentence from the king, the whole assembly rise, and stand upon their feet; and this they must have done the whole time the council lasted, had the king appeared there in person. According to the circumstances of the times, the king goes with the majority, or not; and if, upon a division, there is a majority against him, he often punishes the majority on the other side, by sending them to prison, for voting against his sentiments; for though it is understood, by calling of the meeting, that the majority is to determine as to the eligibility of the measure, the king, by his preroga-

tive, supercedes any majority on the other side, and so far, I suppose, has been an encroachment upon the original constitution. This, I understand, was the same in Persia.

Xerxes, being about to declare war against the Greeks, assembled all the principal chiefs of Asia in council. "That I may not," says he, "be *thought* to act only by my own judgment, I have called you together. At the same time, I think proper to intimate to you that it is your duty to obey my will, rather than enter into any deliberation or remonstrances of your own."

#### HISTORIC ACCOUNT OF THE SPANISH WEST INDIA TRADE.

**G**OLD and silver were commodities of too high value to vest a monopoly of them in private hands. The crown of Spain wished to retain the direction of a commerce so inviting, and in order to secure that, ordained the cargo of every ship fitted out for America, to be inspected by the officers of the *Casa de Contración*, in Seville, before it could receive a licence to make the voyage; and that, on its return, a report of the commodities which is brought should be made to the same board, before it could be permitted to land them. In consequence of this regulation, all the trade of Spain with the New World centered originally in the port of Seville, and was gradually brought into a form in which it has been conducted, with little variation, from the middle of the sixteenth century, almost to our own times. For the greater security of the valuable cargoes sent to America, as well as for the more easy prevention of fraud, the commerce of Spain with its colonies is carried on by fleets, which sail under strong convoys. These fleets, consisting of two squadrons, one distinguished by the name of the *Galeons*, the other by that of the *Flota*, are equipped annually. Formerly,

they took their departure from Seville; but as the port of Cadiz has been found more commodious, they have sailed from it since the year 1720.

The galeons destined to supply *Tierra Firme*, and the kingdoms of Peru and Chili, with almost every article of luxury, or necessary consumption, that an opulent people can demand, touch first at Carthagena, and then at Porto-Bello. To the former, the merchants of Santa Martha, Caraccas, the new kingdom of Granada, and several other provinces, resort. The latter is the great mart for the rich commerce of Peru and Chili. At the season when the galeons are expected, the product of all the mines in these two kingdoms, together with their other valuable commodities, is transported by sea to Panama. From thence, as soon as the appearance of the fleet from Europe is announced, they are conveyed across the isthmus, partly on mules and partly down the river Chagre, to Porto-Bello. This paltry village, the climate of which, from the pernicious union of excessive heat and continual exhalations, arising from a rank soil, is more fatal to life, than any perhaps in the known world, is immediately

mediately being th and mul garrison, Porto-Bello different crowded every cent pro the weal for the n during i days, th the earth that sim bounded pany ext ta holds The tre New Sp vinces, bla de lo its arriv the com Cruz, with th prior to value. have co Americ na, and rope. The nies, w ed, cat with th same pi five co single into a whole by a su former diz. they c preven serves price; which mutua lower In co Europ high, dred,



mediately filled with people. From being the residence of a few negroes and mulattoes, and of a miserable garrison, relieved every three months, Porto-Bello assumes, suddenly, a very different aspect, and its streets are crowded with opulent merchants from every corner of Peru and the adjacent provinces. A fair is opened, the wealth of America is exchanged for the manufactures of Europe; and, during its prescribed term of forty days, the richest traffic on the face of the earth is begun and finished, with that simplicity of transaction and unbounded confidence, which accompany extensive commerce. The Flota holds its course to Vera Cruz. The treasures and commodities of New Spain, and the depending provinces, which were deposited at Puebla de los Angeles, in expectation of its arrival, are carried thither, and the commercial operations of Vera Cruz, conducted in the same manner with those of Porto-Bello, are inferior to them only in importance and value. Both fleets, as soon as they have completed their cargoes from America, rendezvous at the Havana, and return, in company, to Europe.

The trade of Spain with her colonies, while thus fettered and restricted, came necessarily to be conducted with the same spirit, and upon the same principles, as that of an exclusive company. Being confined to a single port, it was, of course, thrown into a few hands, and almost the whole of it was gradually engrossed by a small number of wealthy houses, formerly in Seville, and now in Cadiz. These, by combinations, which they can easily form, may altogether prevent that competition which preserves commodities at their natural price; and, by acting in concert, to which they are prompted by their mutual interest, they may raise or lower the value of them at pleasure. In consequence of this, the price of European goods in America is always high, and often exorbitant. A hundred, two hundred, and even three

hundred per cent. are profits not uncommon in the commerce of Spain with her colonies. From the same ingrossing spirit, it frequently happens that traders of the second order, whose warehouses do not contain a complete assortment of commodities for the American market, cannot purchase from the more opulent merchants such goods as they want, at a lower price than that for which they are sold in the colonies. With the same vigilant jealousy that an extensive company guards against the intention of the free trader, those overgrown monopolists endeavour to check the progress of every one whose encroachments they dread. This restraint of the American commerce to one port, not only affects its domestic state, but limits its foreign operations. A monopolist may acquire more, and certainly will hazard less, by a confined trade which yields exorbitant profit, than by an extensive commerce, in which he receives only a moderate return of gain. It is often his interest not to enlarge, but to circumscribe the sphere of his activity; and, instead of calling forth more vigorous exertions of commercial industry, it may be the object of his intention to check and set bounds to them. By some such maxim, the mercantile policy of Spain seems to have regulated its intercourse with America. Instead of furnishing the colonies with European goods in such quantity as might render both the price and the profit moderate, the merchants of Seville and Cadiz seem to have supplied them with a sparing hand, that the eagerness of competition amongst customers obliged to purchase in a scanty market, might enable the Spanish factors to dispose of their cargoes with exorbitant gain. About the middle of the last century, when the exclusive trade to America from Seville was in its most flourishing state, the burden of the two united squadrons of the galeons and flota did not exceed twenty-seven thousand, five hundred tons. The supply which such a fleet could carry must have been

been very inadequate to the demands of those populous and extensive colonies, which depended upon it for all the luxuries, and many of the necessaries of life.

Spain early became sensible of her declension from her former prosperity, and many respectable and virtuous citizens employed their thoughts in devising methods for reviving the decaying industry and commerce of their country. From the violence of the remedies proposed, we may judge how desperate and fatal the malady appeared. Some, confounding a violation of police with criminality against the state, contended, that in order to check illicit commerce, every person convicted of carrying it on should be punished with death, and confiscation of all his effects. Others, forgetting the distinction between civil offences and acts of impiety, insisted, that contraband trade should be ranked among the crimes reserved for the cognizance of the Inquisition, that such as were guilty of it might be tried and punished, according to the secret and summary form in which that dreadful tribunal exercises its jurisdiction. Others, uninstructed by observing the pernicious effects of monopolies in every country where they have been established, have proposed to vest the trade with America in exclusive companies, which interest would render the most vigilant guardians of the Spanish commerce against the incroachment of the interlopers.

Besides these wild projects, many schemes, better digested and more beneficial, were suggested. But under the feeble monarchs, with whom the reign of the Austrian line in Spain closed, incapacity and indecision are conspicuous in every department of government. Instead of taking for their model the active administration of Charles V. they affected to imitate the cautious procrastinating wisdom of Phillip II. and, destitute of his talents, they deliberate perpetually, but determined nothing.

No remedy was applied to the evils under which the national commerce, domestic as well as foreign, languished. These evils continued to increase, and Spain, with dominions more extensive and more opulent than any European state, possessed neither vigour, nor money, nor industry. At length, the violence of a great national convulsion roused the slumbering genius of Spain. The efforts of the two contending parties in the civil war, kindled by the dispute concerning the succession of the crown at the beginning of this century, called forth, in some degree, the ancient spirit and vigour of the nation. While men were thus forming, capable of adopting sentiments more liberal than those which had influenced the councils of the monarchy during the course of a century, Spain derived from an unexpected source the means of availing itself of their talents. The various powers who favoured the pretensions either of the Austrian or Bourbon candidate for the Spanish throne, sent formidable fleets and armies to their support; France, England, and Holland, remitted immense sums to Spain. These were spent in the provinces which became the theatre of war. Part of the American treasure, of which foreigners had drained the kingdom, flowed back thither. From this era, one of the most intelligent Spanish authors dates the revival of the monarchy; and, however humiliating the truth may be, he acknowledges, that it is to her enemies his country is indebted for the acquisition of a fund of circulating specie, in some measure adequate to the exigencies of the public.

As soon as the Bourbons obtained quiet possession of the throne, they discerned this change in the spirit of the people, and in the state of the nation, and took advantage of it; for although that family has not given monarchs to Spain remarkable for superiority of genius, they have

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all been beneficent princes, attentive to the happiness of their subjects, and solicitous to promote it. It was, accordingly, the first object of Philip V. to suppress an innovation which had crept in during the course of the war, and had overturned the whole system of the Spanish commerce with America. The English and Dutch, by their superiority in naval power, having acquired such command of the sea as to cut off all intercourse between Spain and her colonies, Spain, in order to furnish her subjects in America with those necessaries of life, without which they could not exist, and as the only means of receiving from thence any part of their treasure, departed so far from the usual rigour of its maxims, as to open the trade with Peru to her allies the French. The merchants of St. Malo, to whom Louis XIV. granted the privilege of this lucrative commerce, engaged in it with vigour, and carried it on upon principles very different from those of the Spaniards. They supplied Peru with European commodities at a moderate price, and not in stinted quantity. The goods which they imported were conveyed to every province of Spanish America, in such abundance as had never been known in any former period. If this intercourse had been continued, the exportation of European commodities from Spain must have ceased, and the dependence of the colonies on the mother country have been at an end. The most peremptory injunctions were therefore issued, prohibiting the admission of foreign vessels into any port of Peru or Chili, and a Spanish Squadron was employed to clear the South Sea of intruders, whose aid was no longer necessary.

But though, on the cessation of the war which was terminated by the treaty of Utrecht, Spain obtained relief from an encroachment on her commercial system, she was exposed to another, which she deemed hardly less pernicious. As an in-

ducement that might prevail with Queen Anne to conclude a peace with France and Spain, desired with equal ardour, Philip V. not only conveyed to Great Britain the *assiento*, or contract for supplying the Spanish colonies with negroes, which had formerly been enjoyed by France, but granted it the more extraordinary privilege of sending annually to the fair of Porto-Bello, a ship of five hundred tons, laden with European commodities. In consequence of this, British factories were established at Carthagena, Panama, Vera Cruz, Buenos Ayres, and other Spanish settlements. The veil with which Spain had hitherto covered the state and transactions of her colonies was removed.

The agents of a rival nation, residing in the towns of most extensive trade, and of chief resort, had the best opportunities of becoming acquainted with the interior condition of the American provinces, of observing their stated and occasional wants, and of knowing what commodities might be imported into them, with the greatest advantage. In consequence of information so authentic and expeditious, the merchants of Jamaica, and other English colonies, who traded to the Spanish main, were enabled to assort and proportion their cargoes so exactly to the demands of the market, that the contraband commerce was carried on with a facility and to an extent unknown in any former period. This, however, was not the most fatal consequence of the *assiento* to the trade of Spain. The agents of the British South Sea Company, under cover of the importation, which they were authorized to make by the ship sent annually to Porto-Bello, poured in their commodities on the Spanish continent, without limitation or restraint. Instead of a ship of five hundred tons, as stipulated in the treaty, they usually employed one which exceeded nine hundred tons in burden. She was accompanied by two or three

three smaller vessels, which, mooring in some neighbouring creek, supplied her clandestinely with fresh bales of goods, to replace such as were sold. The inspectors of the fair, and officers of the revenue, gained by exorbitant presents, connived at the fraud. Thus, partly by the operations of the company, and partly by the activity of private interlopers, almost the whole trade of Spanish America was ingrossed by foreigners. The immense commerce of the galleons, formerly the pride of Spain, and the envy of other nations, sunk to nothing, and the squadron itself, reduced from fifteen thousand to two thousand tons, served hardly any purpose but to fetch home the royal revenue, arising from the fifth on silver.

While Spain observed those encroachments, and felt so sensibly their pernicious effects, it was impossible not to make some effort to restrain them. Her first expedient was to station ships of force, under the appellation of *guarda costas*, upon the coasts of those provinces to which interlopers most frequently resorted. As private interest concurred with the duty which they owed to the public, in rendering the officers who commanded those vessels vigilant and active, some check was given to the progress of the contraband trade, though in dominions so extensive, and so accessible by sea, no number of cruizers was sufficient to guard against its inroads in every quarter. This interruption of an intercourse, which had been carried on with so much facility, that the merchants in the British colonies were accustomed to consider it almost as an allowed branch of commerce, excited murmurs and complaints. These, authorized, in some measure, and rendered more interesting, by several unjustifiable acts of violence committed by the captains of the Spanish *guarda costas*, precipitated Great Britain into a war with Spain; in consequence of which, the latter obtained a final release from the

assiento, and was left at liberty to regulate the commerce of her colonies, without being restrained by any engagement with a foreign power.

As the formidable encroachments of the English on their American trade, had discovered to the Spaniards the vast consumption of European goods in their colonies, and taught them the advantage of accommodating their importations to the occasional demand of the various provinces, they perceived the necessity of devising some method of supplying their colonies, different from their ancient one, of sending thither periodical fleets. That mode of communication had been found not only to be uncertain, as the departure of the galleons and flota was sometimes retarded by various accidents, and often prevented by the wars which raged in Europe; but long experience had shewn it to be ill adapted to afford America a regular and timely supply of what it wanted. The scarcity of European goods in the Spanish settlements frequently became excessive; their price rose to an enormous height; the vigilant eye of mercantile attention did not fail to observe this favourable opportunity, an ample supply was poured in by interlopers from the English, the French, and Dutch islands; and when the galleons at length arrived, they found the markets so glutted by the illicit commerce, that there was no demand for the commodities with which they were loaded. In order to remedy this, Spain has permitted a considerable part of her commerce with America to be carried on by *register ships*. These are fitted out, during the intervals between the stated seasons when the galleons and flota sail, by merchants in Seville or Cadiz, upon obtaining a licence from the council of the Indies, for which they pay a very high premium, and are destined for those parts in America where any extraordinary demand is foreseen or expected. By this



this expedient, such a regular supply of the commodities for which there is the greatest demand is conveyed to the American market, that the interloper is no longer allured by the same prospect of excessive gain, or the people in the colonies urged by the same necessity to engage in the hazardous adventures of contraband trade.

In proportion as experience manifested the advantages of carrying on trade in this mode, the number of register ships increased; and at length, in the year 1748, the galleons, after having been employed upwards of two centuries, were finally laid aside. From that period there has been no intercourse with Chili and Peru, but by single ships, dispatched from time to time, as occasion requires, and when the merchants expect a profitable market will open. These ships sail round Cape Horn, and convey directly to the ports in the South Sea the productions and manufactures of Europe, for which the people settled in those countries were formerly obliged to repair to Porto-Bello, or Panama. These towns, as has been formerly observed, must gradually decline, when deprived of that commerce to which they owed their prosperity. This disadvantage, however, is more than compensated, for the whole continent of South America receives supplies of European commodities, with so much regularity, and in such abundance, as must not only contribute greatly to the happiness, but increase the population of all the colonies settled there. But as all the register ships destined for the South Seas, must still take their departure from Cadiz, and are obliged to return thither, this branch of American commerce, even in its new and improved form, continues subject to the restraints of a species of monopoly, and feels those pernicious effects of it which I have already described.

Nor has the attention of Spain been confined to regulating the trade with its more flourishing colonies, it

has extended likewise to the reviving commerce in those settlements where it was neglected, or had decayed. Among the new tastes which the people of Europe have acquired, in consequence of importing the productions of those countries which they conquered in America, that for chocolate is one of the most universal. The use of this liquor, made with a paste formed of the nut or almond of the cocoa-tree, compounded with various ingredients, the Spaniards first learned from the Mexicans; and it has appeared to them, and to the other European nations, so palatable, so nourishing, and so wholesome, that it has become a commercial article of considerable importance. The cocoa-tree grows spontaneously in several parts of the torrid zone; but the nuts of the best quality, next to those of Guatimala, on the South Sea, are produced in the rich plain of Caraccas, a province of Terra Firma. In consequence of this acknowledged superiority in the quality of cocoa in that province, and its communication with the Atlantic, which facilitates the conveyance, the culture of the cocoa tree there is very extensive. But the Dutch, by the vicinity of their settlements in the small islands of Curacao and Buen-Ayre, to the coast of Caraccas, gradually ingrossed the greatest part of the cocoa trade. The traffic with the mother-country for this valuable commodity ceased almost entirely; and such was the supine negligence of the Spaniards, or the defects of their commercial arrangements, that they were obliged to receive from the hands of foreigners, this production of their own colonies, at an exorbitant price. In order to remedy an evil no less disgraceful than pernicious to his subjects, Philip V. in the year 1728, granted to a body of merchants, an exclusive right to the commerce with Caraccas and Cumara, on condition of their employing at their own expense a sufficient number of armed vessels to clear the coast of interlo-

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pers. This society, distinguished sometimes by the name of the Company of Guipuscoa, from the province of Spain, in which it is established, and sometimes by that of the Company of Carraccas, from the district of America to which it trades, has carried on its operations with such vigour and success, that Spain has recovered an important branch of commerce, which she had suffered to be wrested from her, and is plentifully supplied with an article of extensive consumption at a moderate price. Not only the parent state, but the colony of Carraccas, has derived great advantages from this institution; for although, at the first aspect, it may appear to be one of those monopolies whose tendency is to check the spirit of industry, instead of calling it forth to new exertions, it has been prevented from operating in this manner, by several salutary regulations, framed upon foresight of such bad effects,

and of purpose to obviate them. The planters in the Carraccas are not left to depend entirely on the company, either for the importation of European commodities, or the sale of their own productions. The inhabitants of the Canary Islands have the privilege of sending thither, annually, a register ship of considerable burden; and from Vera Cruz, in New Spain, a free trade is permitted in every port comprehended in the charter of the company. In consequence of this, there is such a competition, that both with respect to what the colonies purchase, and what they sell, the price seems to be fixed at its natural and equitable rate. The company has not the power of raising the former, or of degrading the latter, at pleasure; and accordingly, since it was established, the increase of culture, of population, and of live stock, in the province of Carraccas, has been very considerable.

*The following truly ingenious Essay is the Production of Signor Formaiioni, Librarian of the Library of St. Mark, at Venice; and has been well received both in its original Italian and in French. This is the first Translation of it into English.*

#### ESSAY ON THE ANCIENT NAVIGATION OF THE VENETIANS.

**I**N reflecting on the history of arts and sciences, there seemed to me to be placed an immense distance between the real truth and the ideas formed by a distant and ostentatious deluded posterity. From whence my imagination passing with rapidity to those distinguished characters which formed the most conspicuous figures, I have often exclaimed, "Oh how great a part of your glory is centered in chance and injustice!"

Here I hope I may be permitted to make a cursory reflection on the wretched condition of mortals, on our unhappiness in having ingrafted in our nature a thirst after knowledge and a desire of being acquainted with every thing; an instinct very destruc-

tive, and which increases in us the good and evil of our existence.

Man is born void of ideas, and in the very acquisition of them wastes away and dies. His knowledge dies with him, and one single moment destroys the work of many years. Which of the animals, inhabitants of this our planet, is condemned to a destiny thus cruel? Man is the sport of Nature, which makes a mockery of him, drawing him on with the illusion of vain and flattering ideas, which hurry him out of his own sphere, and inspire him with a wish for immortality: this engages his whole attention, and keeps him in a state of perpetual agitation. Whilst he thus advances on towards

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the goal of destruction, which seems to be inevitable, this madness takes entire possession of him, and regulates and directs his every step. He seems to feel himself eternized in his children, and by his works in the memory of posterity, in a palace, in a temple, in a book, and even in a tomb, a clear demonstrative proof of his folly.

Letters, the arts and sciences, derive their source from the above with for immortality, whence it happens that, however they may at any time be extinguished, they will assuredly revive so long as there shall remain a man upon the face of the earth. And though, according to Plato, the philosophers of Egypt told Solon, that at certain periods of time deluges and universal ruin would overwhelm the whole earth, at one blow cancel the work of man, and take from succeeding generations literature and the sciences, they will, nevertheless, by little and little, always revive; and their extinction and resurrection form one of the frequent revolutions in nature. Man, and his works, remain subject to the common law of nature. Man dies, the arts and sciences cease to exist. Great revolutions extinguish them on the superficies of the whole globe; the lesser ones destroy them in one climate, to transfer them to another, make them fall with one nation to communicate them to another. We see them sink at one period, and flourish at another. Rough and uncivilized people sometimes carry barbarism and desolation into countries inhabited by polished nations. Thence they themselves become gentle and civilized, and in proportion as the destruction was rapid, so are the powers uniform for the reviving what has been imperceptibly destroyed.

Thus the Gauls demolished the Roman empire, and introduced barbarism into this clime; those very Gauls who afterwards aspired to the toga; to the arts and sciences of Rome. Thus also the Goths and Lombards, in Italy, thus the Arabs, in Asia and in Africa; thus the Tar-

tars, in China; and so also would the Turks have done, in Greece, had not literature and the sciences been long before eradicated from thence.

In all the several nations of Italy, there remained one only which never experienced the effects of such revolutions, and was never under the destructive dominion of the barbarians; this was Venice. Those Gauls, who destroyed the Etruscan colonies on the banks of the Po, as far as the sea, could not penetrate into the Venetian territories, where the sciences and arts, but not the Roman government, were already established. They could level with the ground the magnificent amphitheatres and the superb temples of Adrian, but they could not reduce the walls of Padua, that ancient seat of politeness, arts and sciences, by which the state of Venice was preserved in a flourishing condition; till a fatal and ungovernable spirit took possession of the world, and in a moment stopped and destroyed the whole progress of human ingenuity.

At that time literature and the sciences were proscribed by a corrupt and barbarous generation; the human passions, and other stimuli than glory, directed all their force to vain and useless objects. A high contempt for the things of this world, inculcated by religion, threw human wisdom into discredit, as a dangerous source of error. Knowledge, which had been stored up for so many ages, was at once abandoned by mankind, as a useless and unprofitable article, and in an instant vanished, leaving a wretched posterity in a dark and dismal cloud of ignorance.

Yet in those times of calamity, in those ages where the mind of man was enslaved, the arts and sciences were never totally lost with us; many useful discoveries being made and many capital inventions published to the world; in which things necessary to commerce and navigation, voyages also, and the communication established with the inhabitants of the east, formed undoubtedly a considerable part. The dawn of the arts and

sciences arose from our horizon, and afterwards diffused itself among the neighbouring nations: now they are enlightened, and possessed of our knowledge, they raise their proud fronts, and, by a vain and despicable pride, contest with us that which we have acquired in distant ages.

While Europe remained ignorant of the art of printing, the sciences were but little disseminated. Discoveries and inventions, with difficulty, passed from one people to another. Books were the valuable inheritance of a select few, and the fatiguing exercise of the pen occupied the whole lives of literary men. Weak was the succour derived from the labours of the dead; every man was left to the force of his own genius.

To overcome the infinite obstacles which were perpetually met with in the miserable career of the arts and sciences, there existed nothing but great wants and great means of supplying them; this was amply proved in the case of the Venetians. What people was more surrounded with wants than they? What nation was ever invested with greater powers of satisfying those wants? Surrounded by the vast Lagunes of the Adriatic, upon small islands of unproductive soil, they wanted every thing. But the sea and the rivers, on the other hand, opened to them resources from whence they might amply supply themselves with all things. Here, then, was the first origin, the real basis of the greatness and riches of the Venetians. Necessity formed them into a people of traders and navigators; Fortune had placed them in a situation best adapted to succeed in, and best calculated for reaching the summit of grandeur. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at if our ancient countrymen had the ability to found so powerful a republic, and stamp an immortal idea on its government. Their wants were pressing, but their means were great.

When once they became inhabitants of that unsettled element, they subjected it to their laws; from thence

they could, whilst sovereigns of the sea, over-run Terra Firma; and, passing beyond their old boundaries, reduce to subjection warlike nations, give laws to provinces and kingdoms, and that in a time when the rest of Europe hardly knew how to exist.

So many and such great achievements undoubtedly could not be accomplished without a great and decided superiority of means. But if we examine our history, any one will easily perceive that neither our numerous population, nor martial spirit, had the least concern herein. What, then, were these means which gave the Venetians the superiority over their neighbours, if it were not the remains of the arts and sciences which they had gathered from the Greeks and Romans? In advancing this, I am not apprehensive of pushing my surmises beyond the goal of truth, though to adduce all the proofs separately, and at full length, would far exceed my intention.

I have no design, in this place, to treat of more than one single point; that is, I propose to give a short treatise on the ancient mode of navigating by the Venetians, and to prove, as far as my abilities will permit, that they understood this science far better than is generally believed. In fact, it is not by any means unnatural that a people born sailors should understand and make rapid advances in the science of navigation. But this science cannot exist without the aid of others, nor be separated from the arts of hydrography, astronomy, and mathematics. The construction of ships, and the wants of commerce, draw along with them the whole chain of the arts; whence it is beyond a doubt that all these sciences, and these arts, were known to the Venetians from the earliest ages, and were never lost from among us.

The celebrated and enlightened Toaldo, in his *Treatise on the Studies of the Venetians*, sufficiently proves that the Venetian navigators were the first who made use of trigonometry in the art of navigation; a

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noble invention! but how much more glory will be ascribed to them, if I shall demonstrate that they were the first also who introduced into trigonometry the use of the radius, divided into decimals, and the tangent itself, both which are supposed to have been originally introduced by Regiomontano. This great invention, unjustly attributed to the above German, whose merit and learning I readily allow has been in use among us time immemorial; nor do I know why posterity should be guilty of an act of injustice in giving the honour of the discovery to a German, who undoubtedly learned it of us during his residence at Venice, in the year 1463. In this manner, Americus Vespulius wrested the glory of discovering the new world from Columbus, a glory which by the bye, did not belong to him, he having stolen it originally from the Venetian brothers Zeni.

In the sixth volume of the Historical Account of Voyages, I have already made mention of a marine atlas of Andrea Bianchi, in the year 1436, two of which charts I have already published. I once thought of giving to the public all the rest, with an explanation to the whole; I had already commenced, but desisted going on, for sundry reasons. On one hand, the expence, as well as labour, were great; and experience convinced me that the sweat of my brow would but ill be requited by the publication, well knowing the issue inevitably attendant on labours dedicated to patriotic purposes. Repeated experiences taught me that it is of no avail to be vain of this species of glory, where the reward of long and unpleasant fatigue, is contempt, or, at best, a degree of cold indifference. It is a duty I owe to candour to declare that the sole recompence for the continued application to the study of this national science, at present no longer attended to, is the honourable mention which the celebrated Toaldo has made of me in his Treatise on Venetian Studies; an honour which I highly esteem, as coming from a distin-

guished character, and because he allows me what I deem the greatest encomium, viz. an anxious zeal for the name and character of a Venetian.

As soon as his treatises, which induced me to pursue the undertaking, reached my hands, I could not resist the call; I therefore quickly set about producing something new, at the same time that I pursued the track of this distinguished professor. Availing myself, nevertheless, of those lights which he furnished me with, I shall take the liberty of differing in opinion with him in some parts, and more particularly where he asserts that the Venetians made use of trigonometry in navigation, not until after Regiomontano had communicated to them the practice of calculating the lines on the radius, divided into decimal parts, and of making use of the tangents.

Whereas, this practice, this use of the decimal radius, and of the tangents in trigonometrical calculations, were known by the Venetians time immemorial; hence it is evident that Regiomontano was not the first inventor; and that rather he learned it from us during his residence in Venice, at the time he came to hold a conference with Cardinal Bessarione, and having, from his great knowledge in mathematics, readily conceived the use, applied it afterwards to astronomy; and therefore posterity looked upon him as the author of this great invention. This opinion soon became general, without being enquired into, was instantly adopted, and without being criticised by the writers of the History of Mathematics, whose consent and approbation would seem to be of consequence, if any authority could have weight in opposition to fact. The discovery of this error owes its origin to me; and the discovery was already made by me, and pointed out in the 6th vol. of the Historical Account of Voyages, when the celebrated Toaldo published his *Spiegazione del l'Antica Regola di navigare, chiamata la Rason del Martelojo*, extracted from an old manu-

manuscript of the Doge Foscarini. This explanation supposes the rule to have existed subsequent to Regiomontano, from whence the author took it; but unprejudiced as I am in favour of the moderns, when put in competition with the ancients, I am strongly induced to give it a much earlier date.

We well know that there have existed Phœnician, Carthaginian, and Greek navigators, and some deep geometricians, in the most remote ages of antiquity, and can we believe that it never at any time occurred to them whilst traversing the sea, the great aid which might be derived from trigonometrical measure! We read that these navigators of antiquity boldly committed themselves to the mercy of the winds on the vast ocean, traversed the Mediterranean, and with numerous fleets ploughed every sea, transported whole armies, gave chase and fought, and can we believe that they solely trusted their destiny to mere chance? If the question is asked of those who are of this opinion, and who believe that the ancients were ignorant in the art of navigation, that they only sailed with small row boats, and kept close in shore, what is the foundation for and the proofs of this their opinion? They

can produce nothing which resists the investigation of criticism. Let it not be said, then, that the ancients knew nothing of navigation, but rather that we are ignorant of the extent of their knowledge. The ancients were men like ourselves, men to whom we are indebted for all the sciences, men of profound thought, and, what is still better, free from that yoke which degrades the human understanding. Such men will by us be supposed to be in nautical knowledge, little superior to the corsairs on the Black Sea, or the Uscocchi on the Adriatic! If, therefore, they wanted practical trigonometry in navigation, what then remained to them as a safe and sure conductor on the watery element?

I could launch out into a vast field of learning, and prove, by many and weighty arguments, how far removed from truth is the opinion we entertain respecting the navigation of the ancients; but I shall reserve this to a better opportunity, if ever I have time to finish a history\* of the navigation and commerce of the Venetians, begun at the instigation of one of the most learned, and I will be bold to say, one of the best among the fathers of his country.

[To be continued.]

#### CAUSES OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES AMONG THE GREEKS.

IT was held an ancient and sacred custom, in the heroic ages, to celebrate the funerals of illustrious men by such shows and ceremonies as seemed most pleasing to their shades. The tombs, around which the melancholy manes were supposed to hover, naturally became the scenes of such solemnities. There the fleeting ghosts of departed heroes were entertained and honoured by exhibitions of bodily strength and address,† while the gods, though inhabiting the

broad expanse of heaven, were yet peculiarly worshipped, by prayers and sacrifices, in the several places, which sometimes the wildness, and sometimes the elegance of fancy, had assigned for their favourite, though temporary residence on earth. The lofty chain of Olympus, separating the barbarous kingdom of Macedon from the fertile plains of Thessaly, is distinguished by several circumstances, which seemed justly to entitle it to that honour. This long and

\* The first part of this history has lately appeared.

† Iliad. 1. xxiii.

lofty ridge ascends above the regions of storms and tempests. Its winding sides are diversified by woods, and intersected by torrents. Its fantastic tops, towering above the clouds, reflect, during the day, the rays of the sun, and sometimes brighten the gloom of night with the lambent splendors of the *Aurora Borealis*.\* Olympus came, therefore, to be naturally regarded as the principal terrestrial habitation of the gods; along the recesses of the mountains† each divinity had his appropriate palace; on its highest summit, Jupiter often assembled the heavenly council, and from thence, veiled in a white gleam, the protectors of mankind descended, and were visibly manifested to mortal eyes.

While Olympus was considered as the general rendezvous of these fanciful beings, it was natural to imagine that the partiality of particular divinities might select other favourite spots of the earth for their separate abode. The singular aspect of Delphi, or Pytho, which recommended it as the seat of the oracle of Apollo, and afterwards of the Pythian games, has often been described. The Corinthian territory was particularly consecrated to Neptune; for where could the god of the sea be more properly worshipped than on the narrow isthmus, whose shores were adorned by grateful monuments of delivered mariners, and which had continued, from early times, the principal centre of Grecian navigation?

A tradition prevailed, that even before the Dorian conquest, the fruitful and picturesque banks of the Alpheus, in the province of Elis, or Eleia, had been consecrated to Jupiter. It is certain that athletic sports, similar to those described by Homer at the funeral of Patroclus, had been, on many occasions, exhibited in Elis by assembled chiefs, with more than ordinary solemnity. The Dorian conquerors are said to have renewed

the consecration of that delightful province. But the wars which early prevailed between them and the Athenians, and the jealousies and hostilities which afterwards broke out among themselves, totally interrupted the religious ceremonies and exhibitions, with which they had been accustomed to honour their common gods and heroes. Amidst the calamities which afflicted or threatened the Peloponnesus, Iphitus, a descendant of Oxylos, to whom the province of Elis had fallen, in the general partition of the peninsula, applied to the Delphic oracle. The priests of Apollo, ever disposed to favour the views of kings and legislators, answered agreeably to his wish, that the festivals anciently celebrated at Olympia, on the Alpheus, must be renewed, and an armistice proclaimed for all the states willing to partake of them, and desirous to avert the vengeance of Heaven. Fortified by this authority, and assisted by the advice of Lycurgus, Iphitus took measures, not only for restoring the Olympic solemnity, but for rendering it perpetual. The injunction of the oracle was speedily diffused through the remotest parts of Greece; by the numerous votaries who frequented the sacred shrine. The armistice was proclaimed in Peloponnesus, and preparations were made in Elis for exhibiting shows and performing sacrifices. In the heroic ages, feats of bodily strength and address were destined to the honour of deceased warriors; hymns and sacrifices were reserved for the gods. But the flexible texture of Grecian superstition, easily confounding the expressions of respectful gratitude and pious veneration, enabled Iphitus to unite both in his new institution.

The festivals, which lasted five days, began and ended with a sacrifice to Olympian Jove. The intermediate time was chiefly filled up by the gymnastic exercises, in which all freemen of

\* See the inimitable descriptions in the 6th book of the *Odyssey*, ver. 42.

† Along the foldings of Olympus.

Grecian extraction were invited to contend, provided they had been born in lawful wedlock, and had lived untainted by any infamous immoral stain. The preparations for this part of the entertainment was made in the gymnasium of Elis, a spacious edifice, surrounded by a double range of pillars, with an open area in the middle. Adjoining were various apartments, containing baths, and other conveniences for the combatants. The neighbouring country was gradually adorned with porticoes, shady walks and groves interspersed with seats and benches, the whole originally destined to relieve the fatigues and anxiety of the candidates for Olympic fame; and frequented, in latter times, by Sophists and Philosophers, who were fond to contemplate wisdom, and communicate knowledge, in those delightful retreats. The order of the athletic exercises, or combats, was established by Lycurgus, and corresponded almost exactly to that described by Homer, in the twenty-third book of the Iliad, and eighth of the Odyssey.

Iphitus, we are told, appointed the other ceremonies and entertainments; settled the regular return of the festival at the end of every fourth year, in the month of July; and gave to the whole solemnity that form and arrangement, which it preserved with little variation above a thousand years; a period exceeding the duration of the most famous kingdoms and republics of antiquity.

Such is the account of Grecian writers, who have doubtless often ascribed to positive institution, many inventions and usages naturally resulting from the progressive manners of society. When we come to examine the Elian games in their more improved state, together with the innumerable imitations of them in other provinces of Greece, there will occur reasons for believing, that many regulations referred, by an easy solution, to the legislative wisdom of Iphitus or Lycurgus, were introduced by time or accident, continued through

custom, improved by repeated trials, and confirmed by a sense of their utility. Yet such an institution as the Olympiad, even in its least perfect form, must have been attended with manifest advantages to society. It is sufficient barely to mention the suspension of hostilities which took place, not only during the celebration of the festival, but a considerable time both before and after it. Considered as a religious ceremony, at which the whole Grecian name were invited, and even enjoined to assist, it was well adapted to facilitate intercourse, to promote knowledge, to soften prejudice, and to hasten the progress of civilization and humanity. Greece, and particularly Peloponnesus was the center from which the adventurous spirit of its inhabitants had diffused innumerable colonies through the surrounding nations. To these widely separated communities, which, notwithstanding their common origin, seem to have lost all connection and correspondence, the Olympiad served as a common bond of alliance, and point of re-union. The celebrity of this festival, continually attracted to it the characters most distinguished for genius and enterprise, whose fame would have otherwise been unknown and lost in the boundless extent of Grecian territory. The remote inhabitants, not only of European Greece, but of Asia and Africa, being assembled to the worship of common gods, were formed to the sense of a general interest, and excited to the pursuit of national honour and prosperity.

Strangers of similar dispositions might confirm in Elis the sacred and indissoluble ties of hospitality. If their communities were endangered by any barbarous power, they might here solicit assistance from their Grecian brethren. On other occasions they might explain the benefits which, in peace or war, their respective countries were best qualified to communicate. And the Olympic festival might serve the purpose of resident ambassadors, and other institutions alike unknown to antiquity.

DESCRIPTION



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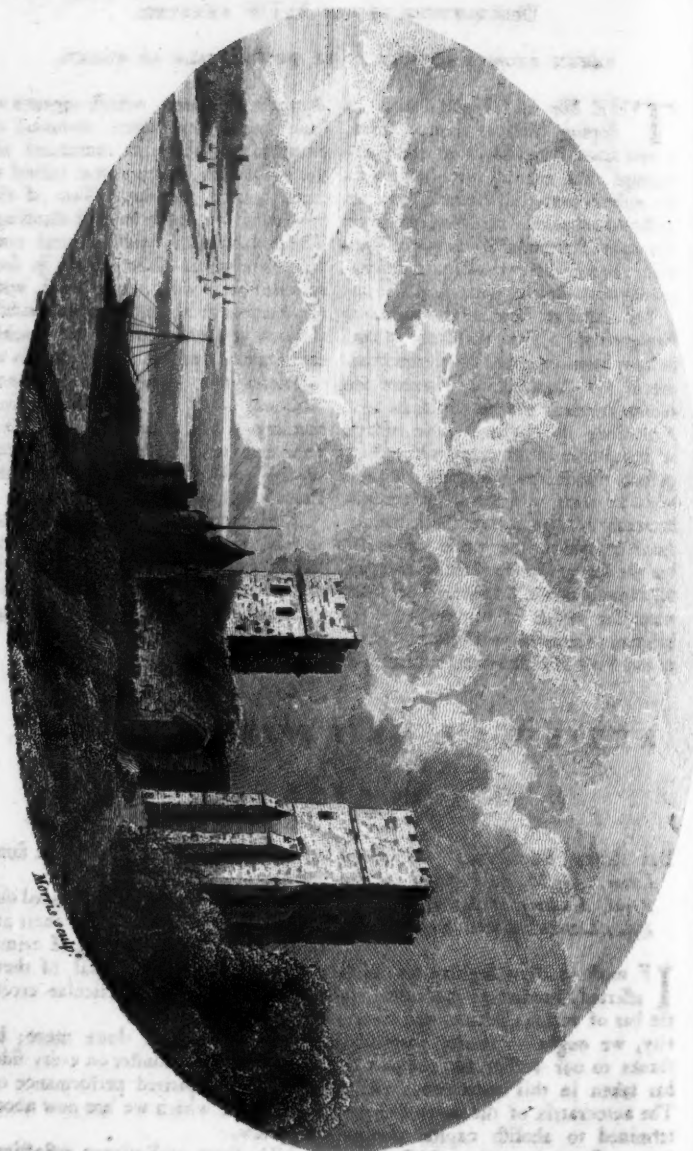
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# VIEW OF PORTCHESTER CASTLE.

*London published June 1799, by C. Smith, at the Pall Mall.*



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## DESCRIPTION OF THE VIEW ANNEXED.

TAKEN FROM HASSELL'S TOUR OF THE ISLE OF WIGHT.

THE Isle of Wight, with its sloping hills and oozy shore, is seen from Ports-down to every advantage; the eye at once taking in the eastern part, St. Helen's, and its westernmost point, the Needles. From this spot Portsmouth harbour, likewise, receives every addition its incessant turns can give it.

The castle of Porchester was in our fore-ground. This building is said to have been erected by Gurgentius, one of the British kings, before the commencement of the Christian æra. According to tradition, the village of Porchester is the place where Vespasian, the Roman emperor, landed when he came to Britain. Here was anciently a large harbour, for the defence of which the castle was built; but the sea gradually retiring from it, till there was not a sufficient depth of water for vessels of burthen, the inhabitants removed to Portsea. Henry the First founded here a priory of

Augustine canons, which appears to have been, soon after, removed to Southwick; where it continued till the dissolution, when it was valued at 257l. 4s. 4d. a year. Two of the towers of the castle are still standing. The court-yard is spacious, and contains a chapel. The whole is surrounded by a wall, very perfect, with battlements on the top; but the inside is much injured by time, and mouldering fast to decay. It commands an uninterrupted view of Portsmouth harbour, and of the surrounding country. The principal use it has been put to of late years has been that of a place of confinement for the French prisoners during a war.

The men of war lying at Spithead appear, from Ports-down Hill, like small spots on the water. The south-east point of Portsea stretches to Thorly Island, where it retires to the Sussex coast.

## REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

## FOREIGN.

DES LOIX PENALES. *Of Penal Laws.* By M. de Pastoret, of the Royal Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. 2 Vol. 8vo. Paris.

IF most modern legislatures, as is asserted, require to be called to the bar of reason, justice, and humanity, we ought to render particular thanks to our author for the part he has taken in this momentous affair. The autocratrix of the north first determined to abolish capital punishment. Beccaria, among the Italians, supported so laudable a measure, and Leopold, the present emperor, shew-

ed his wisdom by adopting the same measures.

These regulations have induced our ingenious moralists to turn their attention towards the system of criminal legislation, and several of them have attacked some particular errors therein.

M. Pastoret has done more; he has assailed this monster on every side, and it is his spirited performance on that subject which we are now about to review.

After some preliminary reflections and general principles, on the important object of his work,

"I wish," says he, "to be an able defender of humanity, without being an accuser of our legislatures; but in what estimation should positive institution be held, when opposed to the laws of justice and nature?"

To assert custom in opposition to equity, is not, according to our author, an answer worthy of a magistrate. The imaginations of very sensible men sometimes lead them to mistake imperfections for vices, and this is sometimes carried to so great a length, that a body of magistrates may be mistaken for a society of executioners, armed only with swords, torches, and daggers.

Our author, who through the whole of his work shews a sensible and tender mind, observes that the French National Assembly has already began a reform in the criminal legislation; but although he pays this tribute of respect to that truly exalted body of men, yet that does not prevent him from observing that in some of their decrees there are articles the utility of which does not appear sufficiently evident. He ventures this assertion from a conviction that a regard for truth ought to supersede every respect towards municipal establishments.

Among the general principles laid down by Mr. Pastoret, he asserts that France has no code of penal laws; all the regulations for criminal jurisdiction being scattered at random, in various laws, many of which are absurd, and some contradictory.

After having laid down his preliminary principles, he also lays down fourteen axioms, the truth of which he thinks no one will deny.

1. The condemnation of innocent persons is a greater evil than the acquittal of the guilty.
2. Until condemnation, every man is to be reputed innocent.
3. No proof can be admitted until it is complete.
4. The punishment ought to be in proportion to the guilt.

5. No crime can exist without a certain intention to commit it.

6. The injury done to society ought to be the first measure of crimes.

7. In all punishments, the public good ought to be the only consideration.

8. Punishments are designed rather to prevent crimes than to revenge them.

9. The individual who has committed the crime ought alone to be punished.

10. The punishment ought never to be such that the fault of the society, if wrong, should be irreparable.

11. That punishment is sufficient which prevents the guilty from repeating his crime.

12. All punishments are unjust, if they are useless.

13. Punishments are unjust, if they are too severe.

14. Impunity is the usual effects of severity of punishments.

The body of this work is, as it were, a learned commentary on these axioms. We may perceive he has not omitted any thing on a subject so interesting to humanity; either in the punishment of crimes, or the protection of the innocent.

"While a people are savage, or but little civilized, personal vengeance (says our author) is the only punishment. As society is formed and enlightened, all resentments, all hatred, are laid at the feet of the law, which then becomes the only executor of public vengeance. In the first ages of the French monarchy, those assassins who had obtained pardon of the king, were still open to the vengeance of the relations of the party slain; and some remains of this Gothic custom still appears."

On the subject of the *right of pardoning*, he contends that the assigning this as an attribute of the sovereignty



is one of the errors of Montesquieu; he does not look on it as an exercise of paternal authority, but asserts that the right of pardoning has increased with the increase of despotism. "Let your laws be mild," he says, "but never pardon." The privilege of pardoning in a bishop, a city, &c. he equally condemns.

The next chapter has for its object punishments in general. A history of punishments would shew that nations seem to have contended with each other for the palm of ferocity. A great question arises on this subject. Has society the right of depriving an individual of life? If it has, how far does this right extend? The difference of opinions on this subject is, at least, a proof of the difficulty of the question.

Some would continue the pains of death to all such crimes as are now punishable with it, others would exclude it in all cases whatsoever, whilst some would confine it to homicide alone, and would substitute more gentle punishments for other crimes. The Grand Duke of Tuscany has adopted the autocratrix of Russia, who, on her accession to the throne, took a voluntary oath not to punish any one with death, and has religiously adhered to it: the late King of Prussia seldom used this punishment, but in cases of murder. These sentiments were adopted by Montesquieu and Rousseau, and the celebrated author of the *Treatise on Pains and Punishments*. Beccaria determines that punishing by death is not to be supported on any principle, and that such countries as adopt it do not consult their true interests.

M. Pastoret quotes history in support of his opinion, and asks if France produced more criminals when the penalties were merely pecuniary, than she does at present? If in ancient Egypt, where the homicide and false-swearer only were put to death, there were more guilty persons than in Judea, where capital punishments were common?

After having noticed every species of capital punishment, he proceeds to such as are not capital, and lastly, such as are only pecuniary; on each of which he reasons with singular judgment. Such are the contents of his first volume.

In the second, he discusses what connection punishments ought to have with crimes, and distinguishes them into nine species, natural, political, chance, legal, metaphysical, physical, moral, local, and pecuniary.

"*Natural connections*," says he, are confined to the rights of men in general, and to the situation of the offender with the offended, or on the contrary. Rights which are the faculty of doing whatever is useful, and opposing what are otherwise. By this simple definition, we perceive all the errors of legislators against nature, since it is their duty to hold sacred, and not to injure, the happiness of man, and civil liberty cannot be said any longer to exist, if severity is exercised against the weak, and impunity permitted to the strong."

Political connections he considers under three points of view; 1. to the time when the punishments are established; 2. with respect to the degree of civilization of the people, and 3. with respect to the form of government.

The above will give our readers a general idea of the division of this useful work. To follow M. Pastoret through all his judicious reflections is not within the compass of our work.

SECOND SUPPLEMENT A LA COLLECTION DES OEUVRES DE J. J. ROUSSEAU; or *Second Supplement to the Collection of Works of J. J. Rousseau*. 3 Vol. 8vo. Geneva. 1789.

THIS Supplement contains a second part of the *Confessions*, and  
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some letters to his friends, and have been printed at Paris under the former title. Some doubts have been entertained of the genuineness of these volumes, and no voucher of any kind is prefixed to them, to satisfy the scruples of the critic on that head: however, from their internal evidence, as they bear so strongly the marks of Rousseau's genius, we venture to lay some account of them before the reader. His first part contained an account of his adventures and opinions, during the first thirty years of his life, and this supplement begins where the other left off. He tells us that, notwithstanding the resolution he had made to the contrary, he once more resumes the pen, and begs the reader to suspend his judgment until he shall have given the whole of this work his perusal. This second part, he says, has no advantage over the first but in the importance of the matter. All the remembrance of the former was a renewal of his enjoyments, but that now his memory renders him almost incapable of all labour, it presents to him nothing but misfortunes, treasons, perfidies, and afflicting remembrances.

In his first part, he says, he left off at his preparing for his departure for Paris, at which city he arrived with only fifteen Louis d'ors in his pocket, and depending on his comedy of Narcisse, and a musical project, for his subsistence. He was recommended to many persons, but found only three of any service to him: In this city, he was introduced to Diderot, and other literary characters. One of his friends advised him to make his court to the ladies. He took courage, and followed his advice, and soon became acquainted with a Madame D——, wife of one of the farmers general: this lady gave him a good reception, and even received him at her toilet, although a beautiful woman, and of irreproachable conduct. This, he says, was too great an encouragement for him; he fell absolutely in love with her, and had the audacity to make it known to

her by letter, the consequence of which was our lover's hopes were quashed: the lady, however, still continued his friend, and by her means, and those of her friends, he was appointed secretary to a Mons. M——, who was going ambassador from the court of France to Venice. Rousseau represents him as a contemptible character, totally unfit for his employment; so that Rousseau had the opportunity of shewing his talents, and by his application to business, obtained the approbation of the ministers to whom the necessary dispatches were addressed. This, however, raised a jealousy of him in the breast of his ambassador, who treated him with such indignity that he was compelled to leave his station. He relates two adventures he had with courtizans, with some degree of humour.

Rousseau, on his return, had the pleasure to find his conduct was approved of, but the ambassador's interest was so great he could not procure any redress. This determined him to exert his talents, to procure himself a subsistence, and relieve him from a state of dependence. About this period, he met with Teresa Le Vasseur, the daughter of an officer of the mint at Orleans; with her he formed a connection: she shared with him his various fortunes, and at last he married her. This girl was a sempstress in the house in which he lodged, and maintained her parents by her work. Of this young woman he became greatly enamoured, and paid his addresses to her, at the same time assuring her that he would not forsake her or promise her marriage. She confessed to him that in her youth she had made a *faux pas*: this was a trifle in Rousseau's eyes; he thought himself happy in possessing a woman with health and virtue, and declares that what she was deprived of he never once thought to meet with. This young woman proved a tender and faithful companion, and made him very happy: this could not arise from her accomplishments, for he declares

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he could never teach her to read; yet she possessed that degree of judgment which our genius confesses was of great service to him. With her mother's conduct he had no reason to be so well pleased; as she plundered both him and her daughter. By this favourite fair he had five children, all of whom he sent to the Foundling Hospital at Paris, and never heard of them more: his mistress opposed this unnatural conduct, but in vain.

Our author complains heavily of his friends, in whose service he often exerted himself; of Didotot, he particularly says, that he met with ungrateful behaviour from him, even after he had been released from prison through his intercession with Madame Pompadour. His chief employment was writing music for the opera; but happening to see in a periodical paper that the Academy of Dijon had proposed a question on the influence of the arts and sciences on morals, he wrote a dissertation on that subject, which obtained the prize.

This eccentric genius fell in love with every fine woman he saw; but his passion, he assures us, was entirely Platonic. His chief complaint is of the treatment he received from his friends; he aimed at what he calls independence, and the success of his *Devin du Village* enabled him, in some degree, to gratify his wishes.

In 1754 he went to Geneva, and passing through Savoy saw his patroness, Mrs. Warens, but much reduced in her circumstances. He offered her an asylum with him, but this she declined.

Before his departure from Paris, he finished his dissertation on the natural inequality of mankind. When he arrived at Geneva, he was ashamed of being deprived of his privilege as a citizen, by his apostasy from his religion; and resolved to resume it. He says that his faith was not subverted, but he had an aversion to disputes and controversies. The perusal of the holy scripture had taught him to despise the absurd interpretations which

many, calling themselves Christians, had given to the doctrine of Christ. By philosophy he had been confirmed in the essentials of religion, but had learned to be indifferent about the formalities.

He had a design to settle at Geneva, but his dissertation on the inequality of conditions, which he had dedicated to the republic, had given offence both to the council and the citizens; besides, he was something deterred from that plan by the residence of Voltaire near that city, whose principles he said he disliked; and it is not impossible he feared the lash of this wit. At the same time, receiving a letter from a lady, (Mrs. D.) with an invitation to live at her lodge, on an estate in the forest of Montmorency, he accepted of it, and resided there sixteen months, until he quarrelled with that lady. Here he met with many vexations, from the behaviour of Teresa's mother, from Voltaire's sarcasms on his letter in defence of Providence, and from various other causes.

His age might have protected him from a propensity to love, but the warm scenes of his youthful age frequently recurred to his mind, and he actually became enamoured of the phantoms of his own imagination. Here he planned his *Eloisa*, drew the characters of Clara and Julia, and attempted his own character in the person of St. Preux. Meeting with a lady, the sister of his benefactress, in her he thought he saw his Julia realized, and he declares he then, for the first time, really fell in love. He obtained from her a meeting by moonlight, which was the only favour she granted him, although their intimacy continued; but a discovery of it offended his patroness. After quitting this retreat, which was called the Hermitage, our hero next resided at Montmorency, and obtained the friendship of the Duke of Luxemburg, but was forced to quit this retreat by a prosecution with which he was threatened, on account of his *Emilius*.

Driven

Driven from hence, he went to Switzerland, from whence he was forced to fly to Neuchâtel, where he obtained the protection of the King of Prussia; but here the clergy pursued him with the most implacable hatred. To avoid their fury he retired to the island of St. Pierre, in the lake of Bienné, but even from this solitude he was forced to fly, and retired to Berlin.

The Confessions conclude here very

abruptly, and the third volume consists of letters which help to illustrate the character of our author. These confessions are tedious and minute, but still entertaining and instructive. Many things in them expose their author to censure, but, in most of them, he is rather frail, than vicious; and his misfortunes seem to have arisen from a want of that species of prudence which men of brilliant genius seldom possess.

## BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

REFLECTIONS ON THE REVOLUTION IN FRANCE, AND ON THE PROCEEDINGS IN CERTAIN SOCIETIES IN LONDON, RELATIVE TO THAT EVENT. *In a Letter intended to have been sent to a Gentleman in Paris, by the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, 8vo. 1790.* Doddsley.

WHEN we take a retrospect of the political life of Mr. Burke, for the last twenty-five years, when, during that period of time we behold him in the British Senate the foremost to declaim in favour of liberty; we are lost in astonishment to find the same man virulently assailing the French revolution, and branding with the most indecent epithets the men who are labouring to complete so glorious a work.

From the time which had elapsed between the first ebullition of Mr. Burke's anger, and the appearance of the work, we were induced to hope that Mr. Burke had been convinced of the inconsistency of his own conduct, and had consigned his promised publication to oblivion; but we were mistaken, and it has at length made its appearance, with all the pomp of royal favour, and has been circulated with all the alacrity of ministerial industry.

We have given this celebrated performance every degree of attention, and to enable our readers to judge of it, shall first give them a sketch of

the plan, and then trouble them with our strictures on it. It is in the epistolary style, and although called a pamphlet, contains near 400 pages, closely printed.

The two societies, the Constitutional and Revolution, are the first objects of his attack; the former he ridicules as a *charitable* establishment, calculated to distribute its own works gratis, of which he speaks with the most ineffable contempt. The latter he admits to be of some standing, but says, it possessed no degree of consequence till drawn into notice by the attention of the National Assembly of France. In his strictures on the latter, he is led to notice Dr. Price's Sermon, "On the Love of our Country," preached before that society. That excellent man, Dr. Price, he compares to Hugh Peters, assails his doctrine with a degree of rancour no one could have expected from Mr. Burke, and has in several respects not only mistaken, but perverted the Doctor's meaning, as the latter has clearly shewn.

Mr. Burke contends that the liberties of Englishmen are not grounded on any claim of natural right, but upon established custom, and asserts this to be a better foundation than that lately chosen by the French National Assembly. Such an absurd position as this tends directly to tyranny, and does not deserve an answer.

This carries Mr. Burke to the main object of his work, the reflections

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tions on the French Revolution. His opinion is, that they might have improved their constitution without subverting it, and have avoided those disorders which have ensued; and these he attributes to the ignorance of the persons chosen to legislate for France, that the majority of the *tiers-etat* were composed of unlearned and mechanical professors of the law, and that the whole assembly consists of the dregs of the nobility, obscure country curates and *clowns*, many of them scarce able to read or write. In answer to this, we only beg leave to refer our readers to the debates of the National Assembly, in which they will find the names of some of the most illustrious nobles of France. This assembly he puts in contrast with the British House of Commons.

To give an idea of Mr. Burke's opinion of the English Constitution; he asserts without reserve, that our unequal representation has answered all the purposes that can be desired or devised. Government, he contends, is not made by virtue of natural rights, but a contrivance to provide for human wants. He therefore is greatly against destroying an edifice which has answered with any tolerable degree the purposes for which it was designed. He treats all theories of government with contempt, and praises the times of chivalry and the feudal laws (i. e. those of madness and tyranny) in the highest strain of panegyric.

He next draws a contrast between the religious sentiments in France and England; in the former he says they are atheists; the religious establishment of the latter he warmly defends. Democracy, either in church or state, he severely reprobates, and loads the National Assembly with reproaches for depriving the clergy of their property unheard. He says, that to drive men to live on alms (alluding to the present state of the clergy) is great cruelty.—That our readers may judge with what justice Mr. Burke makes his last remark, we can assure them, that the sum destined for the support

of the clergy for 1791, exceeds 170,000,000 livres.

The monied interest Mr. Burke blames for this measure, and couples with it the men of letters, who, he says, from the neglect they have experienced since the days of Louis XIV. have been desirous of a change of government.

The injustice of taking the property of the clergy he dwells long upon, and concludes with M. Neckar, that there was not any necessity for so violent a measure. The impolicy of it also, he loudly exclaims against.

He then proceeds to prove that the government of France was not radically bad, as a proof of which he shews its increasing wealth and population; endeavours to vindicate the nobility and clergy, and to prove, what we believe no one circumstance will support him in, that the former were friends to liberty. The popular elections of the clergy he condemns in forcible arguments, and asserts, that it will drive out of the profession all who pretend to independence in their function. The indolence of the monks he defends, and asserts them to be as useful as many other classes of society.

Mr. Burke, contrary to a well-known fact, asserts, that the National Assembly is a voluntary association of men. He denies that they possess legislative wisdom, and, in short, finds fault with all their regulations. We need not then wonder, that their having controuled the power of the King much displeases him. The new courts of judicature are bad, the organization of the army is bad, the navy is bad; in short, Mr. Burke's jaundiced eye turns every thing yellow.

Such is the best account we can give of this extraordinary performance which breathes throughout the spirit of a French Aristocrat. We are at some loss to account for a man thus contradicting what he has boldly maintained through the whole course of his political life; and the most charitable opinion we can form is, that his mind is affected by the continual

tinual disappointments he has met with as a politician.

Were not his doctrines pregnant with the greatest mischief, we should willingly avoid any severe strictures on this work; but a love for liberty, and the rights of man, compel us to combat some of his monstrous, his absurd positions.

In the first place he thinks it better to ground our claim to liberty on prescription, than on the rights of man. This doctrine certainly places an effectual bar to all improvements. This doctrine, if admitted ever since the twelfth century, would have fixed the feudal tyranny to this day, and every change in favour of the people may be deemed an innovation. To ancestry and rank he pays an idolatrous devotion, and intimates, that a person of ignoble birth intruding himself into a legislative station commits an usurpation. Mr. Burke here forgets to tell us how his own claim to be a Senator stands free of this charge of usurpation. His arguments against the abolition of the nobility in France are puerile to a degree; and he, as well as most of the opposers of the French Revolution, do not consider that nobility was virtually abolished by that act of the National Assembly which destroyed the rights of primogeniture, an act, which will hand down the National Assembly with honour, to the latest posterity.

Party in a state seems a great favourite in Mr. Burke's political creed, and the possession of great fortunes by individuals, he thinks essentially necessary in a state. Convinced as he must be, that his flimsy arguments, founded on false facts, can never convince, he endeavours to work on the passions of his readers, and describes the transactions of the 6th of October in the most horrid colours; but in his description he has, we are well informed, introduced circumstances which never had existence.

The feudal system and chivalry, those monsters in politics, are the theme of his song, and every attempt at reform, is by him reprobated. The

exclusion of ministers from the National Assembly, denying the sovereigns the right of making peace or war, although by the former the people are guarded from the influence of the crown, and by the latter, oceans of blood will be saved from being shed, he totally disapproves of.

On the whole, we lament to see the fine talents of Mr. Burke so miserably employed, and that he should so far disgrace himself, as in his old age to become the tool or the champion of arbitrary power. His circumstances possibly may require some assistance from government, and if so, we will charitably say of him, as of the apothecary in Romeo and Juliet, his poverty and not his will consents.

VOYAGES MADE IN THE YEARS 1788 AND 1789, FROM CHINA TO THE N.W. COAST OF AMERICA; to which is prefixed an Introductory Narrative of a Voyage performed in 1786, from Bengal, in the ship Nootka; Observations on the Probability of a N.W. Passage; and some Account of the Trade between the N.W. Coast of America and China, and the latter Country and Great Britain, by John Meares, Esq. 4to. Walter. 1790.

EVERY thing which can afford information respecting the new channel of trade opened to the N.W. coast of America, will naturally be received favourably by the public. This volume, as we may perceive by the title page, contains also information on other subjects, equally important and interesting. It is dedicated to Lord Hawkesbury, and ornamented with several maps and plates.

In the introductory voyage performed by Captain Meares himself, in the ship Nootka, we are told that some spirited merchants of Bengal fitted out that ship and another, called the Sea-Otter, for a voyage to the N.W. coast of America; the former proceeded first to Madras, and the latter to Malacca, and they were to

join

join on the coast. Captain Meares called at Malacca, and found that the Sea Otter had failed before his arrival. From thence steering by the Rastee and along the Japan islands, they made for Onalashka, and on their passage touched at some uninhabited island. At Malacca they found some Russians, who were sent thither in a vessel of fifty tons, where they were to be stationed eight years, and employed in hunting the profits of which are appropriated to the sovereign. The natives of these islands, known by the appellation of the Fox islands, are a stout but short race of men, and bear no traces of a savage disposition. Leaving this island they steered for the coast of America, and entering a strait, which they named Petrie's Strait, found it brought them to that point, forming Cook's river, which is called Cape Douglass, in Captain Cook's charts; here they found few furs, and as the weather now grew boisterous (being the 20th of September) they determined to proceed to Prince William Sound and winter there; they soon reached Snug-corner cove in that sound, where they expected to meet the Sea Otter, but were disappointed.

To pass a winter in this inhospitable place was by no means desirable, but if they had gone to the Sandwich islands, they were fearful they should not be able to prevail on their seamen to return again to the coast; and here they saw some of the natives, collected a few skins, and made their vessels fit to lay up for the winter. The sufferings of our countrymen during that time were very great, particularly from the scurvy; but the narrative being too long for an extract, we have inserted it in another place.

On the seventeenth of May a company of the natives came on board, and informed Captain Meares, that they had seen two ships at sea, which on the 19th they found to be the King George and Queen Charlotte of London; accounts of whose voyages have been published some time, by their respective Captains, Portlock and Dixon.

Captain Meares complains greatly of the treatment he received from the former of these gentlemen, who, he says, absolutely refused him the assistance necessary to his distressed situation, until he had entered into an obligation not to trade any longer on the coast, but to proceed immediately to Canton. Many other circumstances Captain Meares relates greatly to the prejudice of Captain Portlock, which it is not our intention to enter upon, and can only lament that any such complaint should be brought against British seamen, whose distinguishing characteristics have hitherto been generosity and benevolence to each other when in distress.

After this agreement, Capt. Meares left the Cove, on the 21st of June; his crew from 45 were now reduced to 21 people. They proceeded along the coast to the latitude of 52° N. and the crew still complaining, they put into a sound in lat. 56. 38. N. long. 223°. 5. 25. E. of Greenwich, sailing from thence to Owhyhee, one of the Sandwich islands, they had the happiness, in ten days after their arrival, to find all their people restored to health. One of the natives, named Tianna, brother to the sovereign of the island, embarked with them, and they then sailed to the Typa, an harbour near Macao in China, where in a hard gale of wind they were very near being wrecked, but were preserved by the activity of the officers and men of the French frigate Calypso. The consort to the Nootka has not since been heard of. Thus ended this unfortunate voyage. A circumstance however happened at Snug-corner Cove, which we cannot avoid relating.

In October, 1786, the chief of the Indians brought a young woman, and offered her for sale; she was purchased for an axe, and a small quantity of glass beads. She soon made them understand that she was a captive, and had been taken by a party of her tribe, who had been killed and eaten, she alone being preserved. She informed them also, that she belonged

to a tribe to the southward, and represented the natives of the sound as the greatest savages on the coast. When our people were visited by some of the intermediate tribe, the sound means to escape with them.

The next introductory piece in this work is, "Observations on the probable existence of a N. W. passage."

Whoever casts an eye on Captain Cook's charts will be inclined to conclude that no such passage exists, but Mr. Meares is of a contrary opinion, and sounds it on a supposition, that the coast explored by Captain Cook, which he supposed to be the continent of America, was only a longitudinal chain of islands stretching from 45° to 65° N. and thinks that King George's Sound, Cook's river, &c. are part of that chain; that the ice seen in the Northern Pacific ocean is not generated there, but comes from the eastward; that Hudson's Bay is only an assemblage of islands, and that Cook's river appears still navigable as far as it has been explored, and that the observations made by the ships whose voyages are inserted in this collection, greatly support his opinion.

The third preliminary article is, an account of the trade between the North West coast of America and China, &c. In this Mr. Meares endeavours to shew the great advantages which may arise from giving encouragement to the trade from China to America, and to the fisheries on the Western coast of that continent. This discourse is ingenious, and shews a perfect knowledge of the subject, but as we must hasten to the main body of the work, the Voyages, we must defer giving any extracts from it at present.

The first voyage was performed in the ship *Felice*, of 220 tons; she and her consort the *Iphigenia*, of 200 tons burthen, were fitted out at China, with crews consisting of Europeans and Chinese, among whom were various artificers who embarked in the *Iphigenia*, and amounted in the whole to forty men. The *Felice*

mustered fifty of the same description. Every precaution was taken to guard against the dangers of that dreadful disorder the scurvy, and warm cloathing provided for the people. Some cattle and useful animals were embarked; and Tianna, the Sandwich island chief who accompanied Captain Meares in the *Nootka*, was now to return, as were some other natives of the islands, and of America, who had been brought to China by different ships.

Leaving Canton the 22d of January 1788, they steered for the Philippines, and meeting with bad weather and heavy seas were obliged to kill many of their cattle. The *Iphigenia* had the misfortune to spring her fore-mast; in this situation both ships were in great danger, and as it would be hazardous to proceed without securing the masts, they determined to put into Samboingan, the southern extremity of Magindanao. As these seas are infested by pirates, every precaution was taken to put the ships into a posture of defence; and as they had resolved for many reasons to separate, two additional pieces of cannon with proper ammunition were put on board the *Iphigenia*. The scurvy had already broke out on board the latter ship, and a mutinous spirit appeared among the crew, which however was soon quelled. Captain Meares laments the want of a system of discipline on board the British merchant ships.

The Sandwich islanders suffered extremely in the bad weather the ships experienced, and Wynce, a female of that country, died. This young woman, who is described in the most amiable point of view, was brought from her native country by Captain Barclay, of the *Imperial Eagle*, to accompany his wife, who was with him in the voyage; they designed to bring her to Europe, but being in a decline, she was left at China, to return to her native country. The ships reached Samboingan on the 7th of February. Here they were received by the Spanish governor with hospitality. On this



this island the Malays are constantly on the watch to commit depredations, or carry off unguarded stragglers, and one of the Chinese men, being missing, was supposed to have fallen a victim to them.

The ships preparing to separate, Tianna, and the other natives of the island, were put on board the Iphigenia, and Comakala, a native of King George's Sound, remained on board the Felice. Some more live cattle, particularly buffaloes, were embarked, and the Felice sailed on the 11th of February. As soon as the ship was at sea, the temper of the buffaloes altered astonishingly: when first embarked, they were so wild and fierce that the natives dared not approach them; but when at sea, they grew so tame as to eat out of the hand. They now approached the equinoctial line, and were obliged to navigate with great caution, from the vast number of low sandy islands, scattered every where near it.

On the 20th of February they got nearly clear of these islands. The heats were great, the scurvy began to shew itself among the people, and calms greatly impeded their progress.

On the 27th, in lat.  $0^{\circ} 56'$  N. long.  $136^{\circ} 35'$  E. of Greenwich, they saw an island with a large village on it in the midst of a grove of cocoa-nut trees; every other part of the island appeared an entire forest. The ship was soon visited by near 500 natives, all men, in canoes. They bore the appearance, and even spoke the language of the natives of the Sandwich islands. These islands were first discovered by Captain Carteret, in the Swallow sloop of war.

The weather grew tempestuous; the foremast was dangerously sprung, and many of the cattle killed by the rolling of the ship; but the gales abating, the ship carpenters were employed in preparing the moulds and model for a sloop of fifty tons, which was to be built in King George's Sound.

On the 5th of April they saw land; it was an island of about 15 or 16

miles from N. to S. and soon after saw other islands; these they named Grampus Islands. They now made a rapid progress towards the north till about 9 o'clock on the ninth of April, when they desisted what they took for a sail; but, on approaching, it proved to be a huge rock, rising perpendicular out of the sea, in the middle of this vast ocean, to the height of about 350 feet.

On the entrance of the month of May, the weather grew pleasant, and on the 11th they made the land of America, King George's Sound bearing E. on which they did not anchor until the 13th, having been driven twice off the coast.

Captain Meares now proceeds to make some observations on the passage from China to America, which appear to us judicious.

The ship moored in Friendly Cove, in Nootka Sound; here Comakala was landed, and a correspondence opened with the natives. Comakala's relations, Callicum, the chief, and Maquilla, entered the cove on the 19th, in canoes, in great state: there were twelve canoes, containing about eighteen men each, most of them clothed in the most beautiful skins of the sea otter, which covered them from the neck to the ankle. Their hair was powdered with white down, and their faces painted with red and black ochre, which rendered their appearance very savage: they moved, with great parade, round the ship, singing a song in a pleasing and solemn manner; the chorus was completely in unison: the action which accompanied the voice, added much to the impression it made on all who heard it. The chiefs came on board, laid their garments at the feet of the officers, and receiving presents in return, paddled hastily on shore.

The English soon agreed with the chief for a spot of ground to build a house for the accommodation of the people they intended to leave there, and to whom he promised protection. The house was immediately set about, in which the natives assisted; a strong

breast-work was thrown up round it, and the keel of the projected vessel was laid. The utmost harmony prevailed between the visitors and the natives; and Captain Meares describes the chief Callicum as possessing a delicacy of mind that would have done honour to the most improved state of civilization. We are sorry to add that this amiable man was shot by a Spanish officer in 1789, in a most wanton and unprovoked manner.

Trade was now carried on briskly, but rather as mutual presents, than by way of barter. When the king designed one of these schemes of trade, he invited the English on shore, and received them in great state; he then produced his otter skins, and received suitable presents in return. Some thefts were, however, practised. The ship's grindstone was carried off from the fort, and irrecoverably lost.

One day a strange canoe, with several people in it, entered the cove, and offered a dry human hand for sale; at the same time, the English perceived a seal hanging at the ear of one of the men, which was known to belong to Mr. Millar, of the Imperial Eagle, who, with four others, had been cut off here. The hand, on enquiry, was found to belong to one of our unhappy countrymen. Some farther observations induced our people to believe that Maquilla, and others about them, were cannibals.

A visit was received from a neighbouring chief, called Wicaninish, who, with his people, appeared in a more thriving situation than the inhabitants of Nootka. Soon after, they perceived the whole village move, as it were, by enchantment, and, on questioning the chief, were told they were going to a bay about two miles distant, in order to procure fish for their winter store.

The Felice having finished her business here, prepared to put to sea, but lost their pinnace, and had reason to suppose she had been stolen; and broken up by the natives, for the sake of the iron; however, they prudently resolved not to let this circum-

stance occasion a breach of friendship with the natives. A spirit of mutiny again appeared among the crew, and the boatwain, who had behaved ill to his superiors, was displaced, and another put in his place. The party designed to remain on shore were appointed, stores left for the new vessel, and the little fort was supplied with one gun, and proper ammunition. The vessel was very forward, and every step was taken to procure the friendship of the chief to the people on shore.

The ship sailed on the 11th of June, with a view to trace the southern part of the coast from King George's Sound, as the Iphigenia was to trace the northern from Cook's River to the same place. They first determined to seek out the residence of Wicaninish, who, they were informed, lived not far from Nootka, and soon saw his village. A message was received from the chief, to invite them to a feast, of which, and his habitation, we have the following description.

On entering the house, we were absolutely astonished at the vast area it enclosed: it contained a large square, boarded up close on all sides to the height of twenty feet, with planks of uncommon breadth and length. Three enormous trees, rudely carved and painted, formed the rafters, which were supported at the ends, and in the middle, by gigantic images, carved out of huge blocks of timber. The same kind of broad planks covered the whole, to keep out the rain; but they were so placed as to be removed at pleasure, either to receive the air or light, or let out the smoke.

In the middle of this spacious room were several fires, and beside them large wooden vessels, filled with fish soup. Large slices of whale's flesh lay in a state of preparation, to be put in similar machines, filled with water, into which the women, with a kind of tongs, conveyed hot stones from very fierce fires, in order to make it boil. Heaps of fish were strewed about, and in this central part of the place, which might be very properly called the kitchen, stood large seal-skins, filled with oil, from which the guests were served with that delicious beverage.

The

The trees which supported the roof were of a size which would render the mast of a first-rate man of war diminutive, on a comparison with them; indeed our curiosity, as well as our astonishment, was on its utmost stretch, when we considered the strength that must be necessary to raise these enormous beams to their present elevation; and how such strength could be found by a people wholly unacquainted with the mechanic powers.

The door by which we entered this extraordinary fabric was the mouth of one of these huge images, which, large as it may be supposed, was not disproportioned to the other features of this monstrous image's visage. We ascended by a few steps on the outside, and after passing this extraordinary kind of portal, descended down to the chin into the house, where we found new matter for astonishment, in the number of men, women, and children, who composed the family of the chief, which consisted of at least eight hundred persons; these were divided into groups, according to their respective offices, which had their distinct places assigned them. The whole of the building was surrounded by a bench, about two feet from the ground, on which the various inhabitants sat, eat, and slept. The chief appeared at the upper end of the room, surrounded by natives of rank, on a small, raised platform, around which were placed several large chests, over which hung bladders of oil, large slices of whale's flesh, and proportionable goblets of blubber. Festoons of human skulls, arranged with some attention to uniformity, were disposed in almost every part where they could be placed, and were considered as a very splendid decoration of the royal apartment.

When we appeared, the guests had made a considerable advance in their banquet. Before each person was placed a large slice of boiled whale, which, with small, wooden dishes, filled with oil and fish soup, and a large muscle-shell, by way of spoon, composed the economy of the table. The servants were busily employed in preparing to replenish the several dishes as they were emptied, and the women in picking and opening the bark of a tree, which served the purpose of towels. If the luxury of this entertainment is to be determined by the voraciousness with which it was eaten, and the quantity that was swallowed, we must consider it as the most luxurious feast we had ever beheld. Even the children, and some of them were not more than three years old, possessed the same rapacious appetite for oil and blubber as their fathers; the women, however, are forbidden from eating at these ceremonials.

Wicainish, with an air of hospitality which would have graced a more cultivated society, met us half-way from the entrance, and conducted us to a seat near his own, on which we placed ourselves, and indulged our curiosity during the remainder of the banquet, in viewing the perspective of this singular habitation.

The feast being ended, we were desired to shew the presents which were intended for the chief: a great variety of articles, brought for that purpose, were accordingly displayed, among which were several blankets and two copper tea kettles. The eyes of the whole assembly were riveted upon these unusual objects, and a guardian was immediately assigned to the two tea kettles, who, on account of their extraordinary value and beauty, was ordered to place them, with great care, in the royal coffers, which consisted of large chests rudely carved, and fancifully adorned with human teeth.

About fifty men now advanced in the middle of the area, each of them holding up before us a sea otter skin, of near six feet in length, and the most jetty blackness. As they remained in this posture, the chief made a speech, and giving his hand in token of friendship, informed us that these skins were the return he proposed to make for our present, and accordingly ordered them to be immediately sent to the ship.

Our royal host appeared to be entirely satisfied with our homage; and we, who were equally pleased with his magnificence, were about to take our leave, when the ladies of his family advanced towards us, from a distant part of the building, whither they had retired during the entertainment. Two of them had passed the middle age, but the other two were young, and the beauty of their countenances were so powerful as to predominate over the oil and red ochre, which, in a great measure, covered them: one of the latter, in particular, displayed so sweet an air of diffidence and modesty, that no disgust of colour, or deformity of dress, could preclude her from awakening an interest even in minds cultured to refinement. We had not, very fortunately, disposed of all the treasure we had brought on shore, and a few beads and ear-rings that yet remained, served to give our visit a concluding grace, by presenting them to these ladies of the court.

Here the English carried on a very profitable traffic, but found the people, like those of Noorka, possessed all the cunning necessary for the mercantile life. Just as the officers were going

going to embark, a confusion prevailed throughout the village, which arose from some strangers having ventured to visit the ship: one of them was seized, and although our countrymen interceded in his behalf, he was hurried into the woods, and it was apprehended, immediately murdered. These people appeared to be of a very savage disposition, and far less civilized than those of Nootka.

The harbour of Wicaninish affords a secure shelter; a range of islands seem to extend from King George's Sound to this place. During the ship's stay here, several strangers came in, but were forbid to trade with the English. Steering from hence, to the southward, Captain Meares discovered an inlet, from whence several canoes came out, with men of a more savage appearance than any that had hitherto been seen. This strait, or inlet, he named *Juan de Fuca*, from its original discoverer.

As they coasted along, the people of the different canoes that visited them seemed to invite them to land at their different villages. The appearance of the land was wild in the extreme, but the villages seemed extensive and numerous. Passing Cape Flattery, so named by Captain Cook, they were attacked by a gale of wind and thick weather, on a lee shore; and being precisely on the spot where the Imperial Eagle's people were murdered, it gave them great alarm. The Felice continued her progress to the southward, as far as 45 deg. 30 min. W. and then hauled away for the northward. Captain Meares had now obtained a considerable knowledge of the coast of America, from King George's Sound to Cape Look-out. On his return, he took possession of John de Fuca's strait, in the name of the King of Great Britain, and dispatched the long-boat, manned with thirteen men, and provisions for a month, to explore it, but she returned in a few days, with several of her people wounded; in a conflict they had experienced with the natives. The

boat had advanced a considerable way up the strait, and was preparing to land, when they were attacked by the natives suddenly. On their return, they were met by a small canoe, with two men, subjects of Wicaninish, who held up two human heads, just cut off, by way of offering them to sale. This circumstance threw a great damp on the spirits of the men. They had explored this strait for thirty leagues, and at this distance it was fifteen leagues broad.

On the 26th of June they reached Friendly Cove, and enjoyed the pleasure of finding all their friends well, and that they had collected a considerable quantity of furs, and the vessel was well advanced in her building.

Soon after the Felice returned, a dangerous mutiny broke out, headed by the disgraced boatwain, joined by some of the best men in the ship: this was soon quelled, and nine of the ringleaders sent on shore among the savages.

The stores brought from China began now to be exhausted; and they were under a necessity of resorting to the produce of the country. The mutineers, mean-while, were received into the house of the Chief Callicum, and employed by him in the meanest occupations.

On the 6th of August a ship, which they knew to be the *Princess Royal*, appeared in sight, but did not come in, and Captain Meares, fearful that she would proceed to the harbour of Wicaninish, hastened to sail thither. At sea he fell in with her, and mutual civilities passed. This vessel, of only 80 tons burthen, and manned with fifteen men, had been twenty months from England. This little vessel steered to the S. E. and the Felice continued along shore to Wicaninish's harbour, where they had good success in their commercial concerns, and then once again returned to Nootka.

On the 27th of August, to their great joy, the *Iphigenia* joined them, the crew, and their good friend Ti-

anna,



anna, in health. Same day, the two chiefs, Maquilla and Callicum, returned, with their warriors, from an expedition against some enemy. They brought home in their canoes several bakers, which our people afterwards found contained the heads of the enemies they had slain, amounting to upwards of thirty.

The Iphigenia had completely coasted the American shore, from Cook's River to King George's Sound, and had brought certain proofs of the existence of the great northern archipelago. Her crew were now made to assist in finishing the new vessel, and both ships prepared to leave the American coast. It was determined that the Felice should proceed to China, and the Iphigenia prosecute the commercial objects of the voyage.

On the 4th of September the former ship was ready for sea, and on the 7th the two chiefs prepared to retire to their winter residence, thirty miles inland. The mutineers were now received on board, on certain conditions, and distributed in the two ships: the boatswain, however, was kept in close confinement.

On the 15th of September a sail was seen, which proved to be the sloop Washington from Boston, in New England. She had failed in company with another vessel, called the Columbia: they had parted in a gale of wind, and were to join here. On the coast of New Albion this ship had been attacked by the savages.

On the 20th, the new vessel was launched, and called the North-West America; the Indian chiefs came down to behold the launch: the astonishment expressed by them, by Tianna, and the Chinese carpenters, was extreme. The spare stores were now sent on board the Iphigenia, her guns shipped in the Felice, and the three vessels prepared for sea. Tianna went on board the Iphigenia, and the Felice sailed on her return to China.

Proceeding to Owhyhee, one of the Sandwich islands, she met with a

good supply of provisions, and at Oneehow a large store of yams, with which they put to sea, and arrived safe at China in December 1788.

[To be continued.]

LETTERS FROM SIMKIN, THE SECOND TO HIS DEAR BROTHER IN WALES, FOR THE YEAR 1790. *Giving a full and circumstantial Account of all the most material Points, both in the Speeches of the honourable Managers and in the written and oral Evidence brought before the High Court of Justice in Westminster Hall, during the Trial of Warren Hastings, Esq.* 8vo. Stockdale.

THESE poetical effusions certainly have merit, although we can by no means think them fit to be compared to those of our old friend Simkin, in the inimitable poem the Bath Guide. Nor can we approve of applying this kind of satire to a business of such great consequence as the trial of Mr. Hastings, and with he had chosen some other subject to convey to the world a well-timed lash on some characters who richly deserve a severe castigation.

The first four letters are employed on a subject foreign to the title, in an attempt, for we can call it nothing but an attempt, to ridicule Dr Parr's justly celebrated preface to *Belshazzar*.

The fifth is appropriated to a ludicrous description of Mr. Pollard's print of *India Vindicated*: in this he aims some strokes at Messrs. Fox, Burke, and Sheridan, with effect.

The Great Anniversary Ode, the Letter from Mr. Burke, and Mr. Burke's Answer, have little to recommend them: but in the subsequent epistle, which is entitled, *From Simon in Wales to his Brother Simkin in Town*, our author commences a severe and, we fear, justly merited attack, on Mr. Anstruther, for the versatility of his conduct respecting Mr. Hastings. We shall give an extract from it.

One

One thing I have heard, but I can't think it true,  
If it were, it had surely been mention'd  
by you;

ANSTRUTHER, they say, was once HASTINGS's friend,

And in *Leadenhall-street* did his conduct defend;

That conduct which now 'tis his pride to attack,

And to prove to the court is so frightfully black;

That very same conduct he prov'd to be right,

Without spot or blemish, and perfectly white.

Oh! tell me, dear Sim, can this possibly be,

Or are travellers idle, imposing on me?

If the story were groundless, I'm certain the court

Would think all he said a mere matter of sport:

All the Bishops would pray for new light to conduct 'em,

And in ANSTRUTHER's mystical ways to instruct 'em;

Lord TOWNSHEND would ask him, if what he express'd

That day should be confirm'd in earnest or jest;

Lord TAUNTON would think it extremely provoking,

That his time should be spent to hear ANSTRUTHER's talking;

Unless he loves music, and, therefore, refuses

In the harmony sweet of the Managers' voices.

But, pray, can a sophist so able be found  
As to prove the same timber's both rotten and sound?

I'm convinc'd, on reflection, it cannot be true,

For 'tis more than the wisest attorney can do:

The man who confesses he once has deceiv'd,

Has no reason to hope he'll again be believ'd.

In the answer to this, our author has a fair stroke at the quarrel which

happened in the House of Commons between Messrs. Burke and Sheridan.

We wish he had bestowed his last morn in this part of his work

on the former of these gentlemen, whose language on that day certainly

cannot be too severely reprobated.

In the next we have a further stroke at Mr. Anstruther, whom he afterwards calls *Plumboso*.

His speech in defence of Mr. Hastings, at the

India House is finely paraphrased, preparatory to giving his opposite sentiments before the Court in Westminster Hall; of the latter, we shall give our readers a few extracts, which may serve as a specimen of the orator's style.

"My Lords, I shall shew 'tis extremely absurd

"To credit a man that departs from his word:

"When a man with himself in dissention we find,

"Tis evidence strong of a very bad mind."

"My Lords, to your *Ludships* I'm going to state;

"But first I must beg you'll attend to the date,

"January the 20th, the year Eighty-two, 'His letter was written—which cannot be true;

"The ship sail'd in March; for which reason I say,

"'Twas only apparently written that day."

"My Lords we have no direct proof to adduce,

"That the Presents were taken for HASTINGS'S use;

"But yet, tho' the Evidence is not direct, Construction must serve to supply the defect;

"On proof by construction did DONNELLAN die,

"Then in HASTINGS's case let construction apply.

"My Lords, to your *Ludships* I'm going to state,

"That folk without doors are with triumph elate,

"Because DANCY SING was on trial acquitted

"Of the cruelties ENQUEN declared he committed;

"But, my Lords, notwithstanding that BUNN's allegation

"Was made, I admit, without proper foundation;

"And tho' DANCY SING was but slightly to blame,

"Yet HASTINGS's guilt is precisely the same."

It is not in our power to follow this author through his detail of the trial, nor does he deserve equal praise throughout; an attack on Plumboso, as he calls him, is fair and highly commendable, but an attempt to ridicule the speech of Mr. Fox, which was confessedly as fine a piece of oratory as ever was pronounced, favours too much of the spirit of party.

POETRY.

## P O E T R Y.

## TO CLORINDA.

WRITTEN PREVIOUS TO THE SET-  
TLING OF THE LATE DISPUTES BE-  
TWEEN THIS COUNTRY AND SPAIN.

*Canamus vobis, fœc quid uritur non præter  
solitum locus.*

HOR. L. 1. OD. 6.

## I.

WHILST others sing of war's a-  
larms,  
And martial deeds rehearse,  
Be fair Clorinda's matchless charms  
The subject of my verse.

## II.

Nor let me, with presumptuous flight,  
To Henry's\* praise aspire,  
Whose virtues may, with greater right,  
Demand a Hayley's lyre.

## III.

Let him in loud, prophetic strain,  
The hero's praises sound,  
And safe return him from the main,  
With wreaths of conquest crown'd.

## IV.

Till then his safety claims our care,  
And anxious fears molest;  
For much the dauntless soul will dare  
That warms his royal breast!

## V.

Proud in his country's cause to fight,  
His martial ardor glows  
To vindicate Britannia's right  
Against her treach'rous foes.

## VI.

Far other scenes my muse engages,  
That loves to sport on shore,  
Where no tempestuous billows rage,  
No thund'ring cannons roar.

## VII.

Here, in my fair Clorinda's praise,  
I strike the sounding lyre,  
And ever sacred be the lays  
Clorinda's charms inspire!

Hamerton.

T. DUTTON.

Hamerton.

T. DUTTON.

\* Duke of Clarence.

3 N

Emi-

## THE SUICIDE.

*Virginibus, puerisque. Canto III.*

HOR. L. 3. OD. 1.

SCENES of mirth and joy, farewell!  
Sadly let the muse complain:  
Let her seek to move the tear,  
Sympathetic and sincere;  
Render not her efforts vain.

Ye who tender passions know,  
Listen to this tale of woe;  
Ye whose breasts with pity burn,  
Drop a tear on Damon's urn.

And you, ye fair, example take  
From this affecting story;  
Nor fill perfit the hearts to break  
Of lovers who adore ye.

Who to your charms shall make pretence,  
And with addresses teize you,  
If virtue, beauty, wit, and sense,  
In vain combine to please you?

Let Damon's fate your pity share;  
Long fought he Cloe's heart to gain;  
But Cloe, cruel, cruel fair,  
Return'd his passion with disdain.

Lo! at her feet he fues for grace;  
Sighs, more than words, his flame dis-  
cover;  
Whilst trickling down his beauteous face,  
The big, round drops, confess the lo-  
ver!

In vain his tears, in vain his sighs,  
For Cloe, frowning, bids him leave  
her.

"Yes, I'll obey her," Damon cries,  
"And rather die than grieve her."

He draws his sword in wild despair,  
(Poor Cloe trembled, wept, and blush-  
ber'd)

Three times he flourish'd it in air,  
Then plung'd it in—the scabbard!

Vol. V.

## EMILIA TO ENDIMION.

**READ,** gentle youth, the tender lines I send,  
 And hear at once the lover and the friend;  
 For not the god, who darts the pointed ray,  
 Lov'd half so well the boy he snatch'd away;  
 Nor for thy name-sake, Dian felt a flame  
 So strong, so pure, so worthy of her name;  
 Tho' she descended from the courts on high,  
 And left for Latmos' top the starry sky,  
 None can for thee a greater passion share,  
 Source of my joy, and object of my care.  
 I hail'd in raptures that auspicious morn,  
 And that glad hour my fav'rite youth was born;  
 And when the smiling babe hung on the breast,  
 Hush'd in my arms, and to my bosom prest,  
 As oft as I the lovely infant view,  
 So oft my cares and kindling passion grew.  
 Early I taught thee gen'rous thoughts to frame,  
 And early aim at an immortal name;  
 And now thou hast to sprightly youth attain'd,  
 And ev'ry blooming charm and virtue gain'd,  
 So much the more my frantic breast is fir'd,  
 And so much more my charming swain desir'd;  
 But now from thee by cruel Absence torn,  
 I pine unheard, unpity'd, and forlorn;  
 I pass my joyless days without delight,  
 And direful spectres haunt my dreams by night!  
 For as soft sleep upon my eye-lids stole,  
 And full'd the anxious horrors of my soul,  
 I dream'd of walking in a pleasant grove,  
 Sacred to Venus and the god of love;  
 And by my side, intent on jocund play,  
 Saw thee, the dear companion of my way;  
 I mark'd, with pleasure, ev'ry blooming grace,  
 And trac'd each bright perfection in thy face;  
 The rose and lily blended in thy hue,  
 Thy shady locks, and eyes of heav'nly blue,  
 Stood all discover'd, and confess'd to view;  
 When lo! Jove's bird appearing in the sky,  
 Gave dreadful signals of descending night.  
 To screen my darling, then, was all my care,  
 From the assault of such unequal war;

But vain my cares, for now the bird be-  
 hold,  
 With dazzling eyes, and bright with feather'd gold,  
 Alighted on the plain, seiz'd thee his prey;  
 With soaring wing he bore thee far away,  
 Lists thee, soft smiling, to the blest abodes,  
 And mixes in the senate of the gods.  
 Distracted at the sight, I rend my hair,  
 And fill, with piercing cries, the yielding air;  
 Then, starting, wake, and from my couch arise,  
 While trickling tears fall plentiful from my eyes.  
 Thus these lost lines address'd to thee appear,  
 For sage experience dictates many fears;  
 And tho' but young, yet since I can engage  
 Two lustres added to thy tender age  
 Makes me as fit for to advise as woo,  
 And be thy guardian and thy mistress too;  
 Therefore, take heed, forewarn'd by this event,  
 For Heav'n knows what danger's by it meant.  
 May no curs'd fortune tear thee from my side!  
 Hearts so well join'd as ours should ne'er divide:  
 Meet not thy foes on the embattled plain,  
 Nor tempt the dangers of the stormy main;  
 From furious beasts the dire pursuit forbear;  
 Leave the fly fox, and hunt the fearful hare.  
 Thus, cautious, Venus her Adonis school'd,  
 But the too forward boy would not be rul'd.  
 He chac'd the tusky boar along the plain;  
 The boar rush'd on him, and the youth was slain.  
 Her love for him could never equal mine;  
 And sure Adonis' charms was less than thine!  
 Then be thou warn'd, nor leave me to complain  
 That e'er my lover let me write in vain.  
 But if the lofty vision bodes thee good,  
 As some suggesting minds have understood,  
 Confirm it, Heav'n; but whence arose that prayer?  
 For sure 'twas fruitless hopes, and lost in air!  
 For the strong sov'reign of the plummy race  
 Can mean, at best, but empty pow'r and place;  
 For as he bore thee to the starry sky,  
 So should thy low'ring fortune mount on high;  
 Then

Then pride  
 conti  
 And black  
 foul.  
 Save him  
 art  
 Nor let one  
 Or else,  
 might  
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 And blest,  
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 Thou think  
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 But do not  
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 Melod  
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 In silence  
 M. R.  
 has given  
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 tules.  
 Two a



Then pride thy num'rous virtues might  
control,

And black Ambition might deform thy  
soul.

Save him, ye gods, from ev'ry fraudulent  
art!

Nor let one vice attack Endimion's heart!

Or else, perhaps, thou wedd'st some  
mighty dame,

Regardless of thy fond Emilia's flame;

And blest, perhaps, within her rival's  
arms,

Thou think'st not of thy forlorn mistress'  
harms.

But do not so, for surely vengeance waits,

And the just god of love the perjurd  
hates.

Oh! never leave thy happy native bow'rs,

Cloth'd with gay greens, and deck'd  
with smiling flow'rs;

Nor e'er forsake thy rural jocund sports

For dang'rous greatness and tumultuous  
courts,

But pass thy happy hours in harmless play,

And sweetly smiling, wear thy time away.

Come! with thy looks be thy Emilia  
blest;

Let her, with transports, press thee to her  
breast,

Till all her doubts shall vanish into air:

Cancelld each anguish, and remov'd each  
fear.

Come to her longing arms, thou lovely  
boy;

Her fairy bow'rs shall yield untainted joy;

Unfading sweets, luxuriant flow'rs afford,

And the mix'd seasons heap'd upon her  
board.

If but thyself amongst the rest appear,

New springing pleasure shall adorn the  
year,

And each be happy as the blest above,

Being crown'd with peace, with plenty,  
and with love.

Aurora now, with rosy light,  
Began to chase the shades of night;  
But at the sound prolongs her stay,  
For much the goddess lov'd the lay!  
Such honour pleas'd the tuneful bird,  
Sweet and more sweet her strains were  
heard;

(Strains, such as justly men revere,  
And gods themselves delighted hear.)  
At length, she ceas'd, when having done,  
A lark approach'd, and thus began:

"Great are, we own, your vocal pow-  
ers,

"And sweeter far your lays than ours;

"But say, since justly we admire

"You most of all the tuneful choir,

"Why sing you least, who sing the best,

"Nor sing, but when all others rest?"

Smiling, the nightingale replies,

"Such praise, or censure, I despise,

"Nor ever envy I their song

"Who sing each day, and all day long;

"Whilst Nature's dictates I obey,

"Nor sing, but when the prompts the  
"lay.

"In vain to rules of art we trust,

"However good, refin'd, and just:

"One spark of genius, ne'er so small,

"I humbly think is worth them all."

Homerton.

T. DUTTON.

#### TO A LADY.

WHY fades the rose upon thy cheek,  
Why droop the lilies at the view,  
Thy cause of sorrow, Mira, speak;  
Why alter'd thus thy sprightly hue?

Each day, alas! with breaking heart;  
I see thy beauteous form decline;  
Yet fear my anguish to impart,  
Lest it should add a pang to thine.

Yet why, ah! why from me conceal  
Whate'er thy secret cause of care?  
Is thine a pang I would not feel?  
Is thine a grief I would not share?

Alas! thou would'st not cease to speak,  
Could'st thou this heart of mine ex-  
plore;  
This heart, that willingly would break,  
If it might peace to thine restore.

#### NIGHTINGALE AND THE LARK.

IMITATED FROM THE GERMAN.

DEEP in the windings of a vale  
Melodious sung the nightingale;  
Charm'd with her song, the feather'd race  
In silence flock'd around the place.

#### LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

MR. Wilkes printed three copies on  
vellum, of his Theophrastus; he  
has given one to Lord Spencer, who al-  
ready possesses a vellum copy of his Ca-  
tullus.

Two answers to Mr. Burke are adver-

tised in the foreign prints, one in Ger-  
man, the other in French. The vindica-  
tion of the Rights of Men, in answer to  
Mr. Burke, published by Johnson, is the  
production of Miss Woolstonecraft.

The progressive improvement which  
3 N 2 this

this country has made in the art of printing and manufacture of paper, has been beautifully exemplified in a new edition of PLINY'S EPISTLES.

The Duke of Marlborough munificently gave the first volume of his *Gems*, engraved by Bartolozzi, to the Bodleian Library, the public library at Cambridge, the college of Christ Church, and the foundation of Eton. His second volume is, we understand, nearly completed, and we are credibly informed that his Grace has signified his intention of presenting each of the above-mentioned libraries with a copy.

It is not generally known that Reiske, whose Demosthenes is esteemed the most valuable edition of that author, had the assistance of all the manuscripts of our Taylor. The use of these was procured for him by Dr. Askew: we are very sorry to learn, from the best authority, that they have never been returned.

Mrs. Reiske, the widow of the above, has published a Latin author, with a very long inscription to Mr. Pitt.

The library of Dr. Lort, lately deceased, contains a greater number of rare tracts on the subject of British antiquities

than any private collection in this kingdom. We have not yet heard in what manner they are to be disposed of; but it appears to be the general wish that they may not be separated and dispersed.

It is said, that the valuable and interesting manuscripts of the Scotch college at Paris will be permitted by the National Assembly to encrease the treasures of the British Museum.

The University of Oxford has purchased the edition of Plutarch's works, preparing by Professor Wyttenbach.—This learned man has already been employed twenty years on the work, and from the specimen which has been published there can be no doubt of its being ultimately one of the most valuable acquisitions to literature which has ever been made.

The Bodleian Library has lately made some large purchases of the early printed books. Amongst others, they have procured a first edition of Ovid, printed before the year 1470, in the highest preservation. Of this curious book Lord Spencer has a copy, which he obtained with the Revinski collection. There are no other copies known.

## THEATRICAL INTELLIGENCE.

SINCE our last, neither of the theatres have produced any new piece; we are, therefore, necessarily obliged to confine our strictures to such new performers, as have made their appearance.

The company at *Drury-Lane* is so strong that they do not seem to stand in need of any recruits. Mrs. Siddons, after an absence of two years, has renewed her acquaintance with the town, in the character of Isabella: she was, as might be expected, received most cordially, and went through the part with her usual powers, which seem not in the least diminished by her late illness. She has since played the *Grecian Daughter*.

At *Covent-Garden* they have brought forth a strange compound, which they have called a *Divertissement*, consisting of dialogue, and a collection of Mr. Dibdin's songs. The merit of the latter are well known, and have secured the piece a run for a few nights. That dull comedy, the *German Baron*, has hobbled on for nine

representations, and it is probable that as the author has now enjoyed his third night, the town will not hereafter be much troubled with it.

A Mr. Munden, from the country, made his entré, in the character of Sir Francis Gripe, in the *Busy Body*, and Jemmy Jumps, in the comic opera of the *Farmer*. In the former character, he succeeded, in portraying the feebleness of age, and in the latter he shewed himself no contemptible substitute for Edwin. Mrs. Estlin has appeared in *Roselind*, and notwithstanding so many admired actresses have performed this part, she still shews great merit. She has since attempted *Ophelia*, in *Hamlet*, with success. Munden has also played *Don Lewis*, in Cibber's comedy of *Love makes a Man*, in which he shewed much true comic humour. Mrs. Ferguson, daughter of the once admired Miss Burchell, attempted the part of *Rosetta*, in *Love in a Village*, but made no great figure either in person, voice, or action.

MONTHLY

## MONTHLY REGISTER.

## PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS.

Thursday, Nov. 26.

THE new parliament, being the seven-  
teenth of Great Britain, met: his  
majesty being seated on the throne, and  
the House of Commons being sent for, the  
Lord Chancellor informed them it was his  
majesty's pleasure that they should chuse a  
speaker, and present him to his majesty  
tomorrow for his approbation. The  
King and the Commons having retired,  
the Lords present proceeded to take the  
oaths, the Lord Chancellor being first  
sworn: a certificate of the return of *thir-*  
*teen* peers to serve for North-Britain was  
read, by which it appeared that six other  
lords had been returned by an equal num-  
ber of votes.

The Earl of *Guildford* took his oath, on  
his succession. The Marquis of *Abercorn*,  
the Earl of *Beverly*, Viscount *Digby*, and  
Lords *Fife* and *Mulgrave*, took their oaths  
and seats, on their creation.

The Commons being returned to their  
house, the Master of the Rolls rose, and  
after a long speech proposed the Right  
Hon. H. Addington to be speaker; he  
was seconded by Mr. *Philips*.

Mr. *Addington*, after the usual *modus* re-  
fusal, was seated in the chair. Next day,  
Nov. 26, he was presented at the bar of  
the House of Lords, and accepted. His  
majesty then made the following speech  
from the throne.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

It is a great satisfaction to me to in-  
form you that the differences which had  
arisen between me and the court of Spain  
have happily been brought to an amicable  
termination.

I have ordered copies of the declara-  
tions exchanged between my ambassador  
and the minister of the Catholic king,  
and of the convention which has since  
been concluded, to be laid before you.

The objects which I have proposed to  
myself, in the whole of this transaction,  
have been to obtain a suitable reparation  
for the act of violence committed at  
Nootka, and to remove the grounds of  
similar disputes in future; as well as to se-  
cure to my subjects the exercise of their  
navigation, commerce, and fisheries, in  
those parts of the world which were the  
subject of discussion.

The zeal and public spirit manifested by  
all ranks of my subjects, and the disposi-

tion and conduct of my allies, had left  
me no room to doubt of the most vigorous  
and effectual support; but no event could  
have afforded me so much satisfaction as  
the attainment of the objects which I had  
in view, without any actual interruption  
of the blessings of peace.

Since the last session of parliament, a  
foundation has been laid for a pacification  
between Austria and the Porte, and I am  
now employing my mediation, in con-  
junction with my allies, for the purpose  
of negotiating a definitive treaty between  
those powers, and of endeavouring to put  
an end to the dissensions in the Nether-  
lands, in whose situation I am necessarily  
concerned, from considerations of na-  
tional interest, as well as from the en-  
gagements of treaties.

A separate peace has taken place be-  
tween Russia and Sweden, but the war  
between the former of those powers and  
the Porte still continues. The principles  
on which I have hitherto acted will make  
me always desirous of employing the  
weight and influence of this country in  
contributing to the restoration of general  
tranquillity.

Gentlemen of the House of Com-  
mons,

I have ordered the accounts of the ex-  
pences of the late armaments, and the es-  
timates for the ensuing year, to be laid be-  
fore you.

Painful as it is to me, at all times, to  
see any increase of the public burthens, I  
am persuaded you will agree with me in  
thinking that the extent of our prepara-  
tions was dictated by a due regard to the  
existing circumstances, and that you will  
reflect, with pleasure, on so striking a  
proof of the advantages derived from the  
liberal supplies granted since the last peace  
for the naval service. I rely on your zeal  
and public spirit to make due provision  
for defraying the charges incurred by this  
armament, and for supporting the several  
branches of the public service on such a  
footing as the general situation of affairs  
may appear to require. You will, at the  
same time, I am persuaded, shew your  
determination invariably to persevere in  
that system which has so effectually con-  
firmed and maintained the public credit  
of the nation.

My

My Lords and Gentlemen,

You will have observed, with concern, the interruption which has taken place in the tranquillity of our Indian possessions, in consequence of the unprovoked attack on an ally of the British nation. The respectable state, however, of the forces under the direction of the Government there, and the confidence in the British name, which the system prescribed by Parliament has established among the native powers in India, afford the most favourable prospect of bringing the contest to a speedy and successful conclusion.

I think it necessary particularly to call your attention to the state of the province of Quebec, and to recommend it to you to consider of such regulations for its government as the present circumstances and condition of the province may appear to require.

I am satisfied that I shall, on every occasion, receive the fullest proofs of your zealous and affectionate attachment, which cannot but afford me peculiar satisfaction; after to recent an opportunity of collecting the immediate sense of my people.

You may be assured that I desire nothing so much on my part as to cultivate an entire harmony and confidence between me and my Parliament, for the purpose of preserving and transmitting to posterity the invaluable blessings of our free and excellent constitution; and of concurring with you in every measure which can maintain the advantages of our present situation, and promote and augment the prosperity and happiness of my faithful subjects.

The king being withdrawn, Lords *Griffiths*, *Grenville*, and *Douglas*, took their seats, on their creation, and *Earl Paulet* rose to move an address to his majesty, which he did in a concise manner, and being seconded by Lord *Hardwicke*, the Earl of *Stanhope* rose, not, he said, to oppose the address, but to notice a libel lately published on the King of England, (his lordship alluded to *M. de Calonne's* book, *De l'Etat de la France present et avenir*.) But no reply being made to his lordship, the address passed. The House of Commons this day and Monday continued to swear in their members, and on Tuesday, the 30th, Mr. *Burke* rose, and observed, he thought it necessary to say something on the subject of Mr. *Hastings's* impeachment, as this was the day fixed for the trial in the House of Lords, but which must necessarily be spent in considering of an address to the king: he hoped the house would take up the matter at an early day. But the Chancellor of the Exchequer recommending him not to proceed precipitately, Mr. *Burke* acquiesced.

The house then proceeded to take into consideration the speech from the throne, and Mr. *Mainwaring*, member for the county of Middlesex, rose to move the address. He said, he thought the manner in which the negotiation with Spain had been carried on reflected great credit on his majesty's ministers. Peace was the true policy of this country, and his majesty's ministers had brought the treaty to such a termination as to secure the blessings of peace. Compelled as we had been to arm, we had seen one of the most powerful fleets this country had ever sent to sea equipped in a short time; the expense of this armament could not be any subject of blame to the minister, as it was unavoidable. He then touched on the other objects noticed in the speech, and moved the address, which was seconded, after a short speech, by R. P. *Carew*, Esq.

Sir *John Jervis* rose to speak of the almost unparalleled exertions of the navy.

Mr. *Fox* followed him, who declared he did not mean to oppose the address, but to make a few observations on what had been said. As to that part of the speech which respected the interests of this country with foreign nations, he approved of every measure which led to a cessation of hostilities; but was surprized no notice was taken of the situation of the Austrian Netherlands: we had a treaty, (that of Utrecht) by which we were bound to guarantee them to the emperor, and he presumed ministers considered themselves bound by that treaty. He wished to avoid all discussion of the affairs of France. The peace between Austria and the Porte he was happy to hear of. The peace between Russia and Sweden had not, he observed, been ascribed to the British cabinet. On the good effects of the bill to restrain the rapacity of our officers in India, he sincerely rejoiced.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer was happy to think the house coincided with him in opinion, and, after some few remarks from him and Mr. *Fox*, the address was voted unanimously.

A call of the house was moved for by Mr. *Pitt*, on the suggestion of Mr. *Fox*, and ordered on this day fortnight.

In the House of Lords, on Wednesday, Dec. 1, a petition was presented for the Earl of *Hopetoun*, complaining of the illegality of the votes of the Earl of *Caithness* and Lord *Ochiltree*, whereby he had been deprived of his election as one of the sixteen peers of Scotland; and a petition to the same purpose was presented in the name of the Earl of *Selkirk*.

Ordered, that all petitions relative to the election of the peers of Scotland be presented on or before the said instant.

In the Commons, the usual order was read



read for the distribution of petitions relative to undue returns into different classes. Petitions were then presented against undue returns for the following places, and are to be taken under consideration—

Hellstone, on December 16.

Carlisle, February 2.

Stirling, February 8.

Taunton, February 15.

Pomfret, February 19.

Exeter, February 17.

Barnstable, February 22.

Newark, February 24.

Leominster, March 1.

Lauder, &c. Burghs, March 3.

Dumfries, ditto, March 8.

Lutterhall, March 10.

Colchester, March 21.

Mr. Speaker called upon Mr. Carew for the report of the address to his majesty, which was read, and ordered to be presented to his majesty by the whole house, and that such members as were of his majesty's privy council should wait upon his majesty to know when he would be graciously pleased to receive it.

In the House of Commons on Thursday, December 2, Mr. Ryder, Comptroller of the Household, informed the House that his Majesty had been waited upon, and was graciously pleased to appoint this day for receiving the Address. At three o'clock the House adjourned, and attended the Speaker to St. James's, to present it.

In the House of Lords on Monday, December 6, the Duke of Leeds, as Secretary of State for the Foreign Department, presented copies of the Declaration, Counter-Declaration, and Convention, which were ordered to be taken into consideration on Monday next.

The Commons ordered, that no petitions for private bills be received after the 25th of February.

Mr. Jekyll moved for leave to bring in a bill for the employment and custody of criminals in certain cases, and the regulation of the places in which they shall be confined. Granted.

In a Committee of Supply, Mr. Gilbert in the chair.

Mr. Hopkins said, that as he meant to propose a greater number of seamen than had been voted last year, he thought proper to assign the reasons for the increase. Last year there had been voted 24,000, including 3,600 marines, a number sufficient to man sixteen ships of the line. It had been found necessary to have ten additional ships of the line, besides the squadron under Admiral Cornish. And though these ships might be soon paid off, and the fleet under Admiral Cornish return, 24,000 seamen might be considered as the mean number for the whole year. He concluded with moving,

"That 24,000 seamen, including 4,800 Marines, be employed for the service of the year 1791, at the usual rate of 41. per man per month."

Mr. Rolle rejoined to hear that an additional number of Marines was proposed. They were a very useful corps. He hoped some encouragement would be held out to their Officers, who were entitled to every indulgence that Government could bestow. The Engineers and Artillery had invalid companies, which the Marines had not, although they were equally entitled to such a provision.

The resolutions were agreed to.

Mr. Rose moved, "That the sum of 3,500,000. be granted to pay off the like sum borrowed on Exchequer Bills, by virtue of an Act of last Session of Parliament."—Which was also agreed to.

The report to be received to-morrow.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer gave notice, that he should move to refer the accounts of the expences of the late Armament to a Committee of Supply on Friday next. Adjourned.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday, December 7, Lord Courtenay presented some papers at the bar.

Mr. Gilbert reported the votes of supply. The Speaker having put the question, to allow 24,000 seamen, including marines, for the naval service of next year.

Mr. Fox rose and observed, that he could not think of agreeing to this resolution without making a few remarks, especially as he had heard from an Hon. Gentleman, not now in his place (Mr. Pitt), that the King's Ministers meant, in stating the expences necessary to be provided for, to make a clear distinction between that which was incurred entirely in consequence of the late armament, and the current expence of the year. But this, if he was to judge from the resolution before them, was not meant to be done. He said, that to give a vote for so great an increase, as from 18,000, to 24,000, as now proposed, without being possessed of sufficient and satisfactory information as to the necessity of that extraordinary burthen, would be acting inconsistently with the duty which every member owed to his constituents. No man was a warmer advocate for a liberal confidence in the King's Ministers than he was; at the same time, he thought that the House had an undoubted title to every information relative to its expenditure, that could be obtained.—What he wished to know he should state thus: Whether from the present situation of this country, and the state of Europe, his Majesty's Ministers considered it to be the necessary policy of this country to keep up a greater naval establishment than was formerly done in

time of peace? or, whether it was intended entirely to alter the former system, and to make a permanent increase of the peace establishment?

Mr. Hopkins said, he had expressly stated that it was not meant as a permanent increase of the naval establishment; and had likewise mentioned, that in all probability the ten additional ships would be paid off in the course of a few months, and those in the West Indies upon their return; which might also be soon expected.

Mr. Fox replied; that was not a satisfactory answer to the question he had put.

Mr. Rose assured the Right Honourable Gentleman, that it was the intention of the Minister to lay before Parliament a full and particular account of every expense that attended the armament, unconnected with, and separate from, the estimates of the current year.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, he understood that the Right Honourable Gentleman was very desirous to have an exact account of the expenses attending the late armament, distinct from the estimates of the current year; it was his intention to lay before the House a very particular detail of every article that had been done in consequence of the late difference with Spain, and the consequent armament. With regard to the present vote for 22,000 seamen, he did not think it was possible entirely to separate that from the current expenses, because the dismantling of so great a fleet could take place but gradually, and there might even be a necessity for keeping up a greater peace establishment than formerly, as he would not hesitate to say, that his Majesty's Ministers considered that the present state of Europe demanded that a greater naval force should be kept up than the last peace establishment, at least for a short time.

Mr. Fox, in reply, said, that finding from what had fallen from the Right Honourable Gentleman, that his Majesty's Ministers considered it to be the policy of this country, from the general state of Europe at present, to increase the peace establishment, he would most cheerfully give his vote for the motion.

The Speaker then put the question, and this resolution was carried; as were all the other resolutions that had been moved in the committee of supply.

Mr. Pitt rose to acquaint the House, that on account of some particular circumstances, he wished to postpone the consideration of the ways and means for defraying the expense of the late armament till Wednesday se'night.

Mr. Grey said, it was his intention to move for several papers, which, in his

opinion, were absolutely necessary to be on the table before the House could enter into the discussion of the Convention; as the motion which he intended to make would, probably, occasion some debate, he wished to bring it on on Monday—if the Right Honourable Gentleman would agree to postpone the consideration of the Convention to some other day.

Mr. Pitt said, he had no objection to let the motion of the Right Honourable Gentleman precede the other. If the majority of the House should agree with him in thinking that there were already sufficient documents on the table to enable them to discuss the merits of the Convention, both questions, in his opinion, might be debated on the same day; but if the House should determine that more papers were necessary, then, undoubtedly, time must be given to produce them.

After some further conversation, Mr. Grey acquiesced in this arrangement, and the House adjourned.

In the House of Commons, Wednesday December 8, the following petitions, complaining of undue elections, were presented, and ordered to be taken into consideration.

John Rutterford, Esq. for the county of Roxburgh, on the 10th of May; Robert Preston, Esq.; for the Borough of Cirencester, on the 12th ditto; and William Smith, Esq. for Sudbury, on the 17th ditto.

Mr. Fox brought up a petition in behalf of certain electors of the city of Westminster, complaining of the decision of the Select Committee of the last session of Parliament, respecting the rights of the inhabitants of the Duchy of Lancaster. The petition being read, Mr. Fox stated the importance of it as affecting the franchises of many of his constituents; and as it could not properly be classed with any of the other petitions, he was anxious that the merits of it should be discussed at a period of the session when a full attendance could be procured. Ordered to be taken into consideration on Monday the 18th of February.

Mr. Steele presented an account of the distribution of the million vote of credit passed the last session of Parliament. Ordered to lie on the table.

In a Committee of the whole House, Mr. Gilbert in the chair—voted the Land-Tax, at four shillings in the pound. To be reported to-morrow.

In the House of Commons on Thursday, December 9, Mr. Phillips presented a bill for providing custody and employment for offenders in certain places.

Mr. Keble presented a petition for Dartmouth; ordered to be taken into consideration on Thursday, May 19.

Mr. Gilbert brought up the report of

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the Land-Tax from the Committee of Supply.

A petition was presented from John Horne Tooke, Esq. complaining of the return of Lord Hood, and the Right Hon. Charles James Fox, for Westminster; which being read, Mr. Speaker said, he believed it belonged to no class of petitions which had yet been provided for in the act for regulating contested elections, he was therefore at a loss how to proceed; upon which it was read a second time.

Mr. Pulteney rose, and said there could be no hesitation concerning the disposal of a petition which was fraught with insolent, impertinent, and libellous matter, a petition which aimed an open and direct insult upon the character and dignity of that House, and which that House ought to treat with scorn and contempt. He was of opinion, that the petition did not go to dispute the undue return or election of the sitting members; but the direct and pointed tendency of it was to propose matter to the committee, to whom it might be referred, in order to induce them to make a reform in the mode of election.

Mr. Fehyll was clearly of opinion that it could not class with any other petition.

Mr. Speaker said, it was with some diffidence that he stated at first his doubts as to the class of petitions that this most extraordinary paper should stand in; he would now mention how these doubts had arisen, because he was convinced, in the most positive manner, that there could be but one opinion as to the terms in which it was written—that they were so gross, indecent, and monstrously scandalous, that words could scarce be found to utter a great enough detestation of them. His doubts had arisen from reading the act of parliament, which expressly states, that when a petition is presented, complaining of an undue election, the House shall appoint a day and hour for taking it into consideration. If he could conceive that there was any complaint for an undue return, he must conform with the statute.

The Master of the Rolls concurred, that if there was any thing like a complaint, it must go to a committee.

The petition was read a third time, when

Mr. Pitt rose—he was sorry he had not been present at the commencement of the debate: but as he had heard the petition once read, he would state to the House that he had some doubts whether they possibly could get free of it without appointing a day and hour for taking it into consideration.

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Mr. Pulteney thought that as it was evidently meant by the petitioner never to try the merits of the return, nor follow up the point at issue, it would be exceedingly idle to give the petitioner a hearing of any kind.

Mr. Bearcroft differed from his learned friend respecting the necessity of taking it into consideration, upon the plea that the point at issue was to be followed up; because he considered it something like an indictment in a common court, the body of which was stuffed with the most indecent and irrelevant terms. In an application for justice in such a case, what would be the conduct of the court? Certainly they would treat it with contempt.

The Master of the Rolls was now rather inclined to agree with the Right Hon. gentleman (Mr. Pulteney) that as the concluding part of the petition intimated an intention to restrain the former claim, it ought not to be taken into consideration.

Sir William Young thought a petition of so scandalous a nature could never be too much reprobated.

Mr. Fox said, that laying aside every consideration of this petition that might be supposed to bias him, he would speak upon it in that manner which he conceived the House was bound by the law of parliament to receive it. He said there was a direct complaint of an undue return, and therefore a day must be appointed for considering it in the terms of the statute. He contended that it ought to have as early a day as possible; and not be put off so long as to allow it to lie over till next sessions; and indeed he thought the earlier the better.

Mr. Pitt said, the Right Hon. Gentleman over against him had so completely expressed his ideas on the subject, and was so perfectly master of the question before them, that little remained for him to add after stating his concurrence with the Right Hon. Gentleman, and that the plan he had proposed might be adopted.

It was then agreed to take the petition into consideration on the 4th of February.

A petition was presented from Sir James Johnstone, praying that as the plegiors of abode of Patrick Miller, Esq. could not be found, the notice of entering his recognizance might be served upon the clerk of the House; which, after a short conversation, was received, and its contents (only enlarging the term) agreed to.

Mr. Burke then rose to make his expected proposition upon the subject of the Impeachment of Mr. Hastings.

That this House, on to-morrow (Friday) at night, do resolve itself into a Committee of the whole House, to take into consideration the case in which the trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. late Governor

nor General of Bengal, was left at the dissolution of the late parliament."

Mr. *Bastard* concurred in the motion; and rose merely to observe, that the house need not be surprised if the question to be agitated on the day proposed should be put to issue by an opposition to the Speaker's leaving the chair.

Mr. *Pitt* deprecated the idea of getting rid of the question instead of agitating it.

Mr. *Bastard* declared himself averse to the agitating any abstract question, as dangerous to good government; and that he, therefore, wished to avoid it by bringing to issue a determination as to the particular case of Mr. Hastings.

Mr. *Misford* coincided in the propriety of the proposition before the house.

Mr. *Burke*, in reply to the two last gentlemen, contended there was nothing like an abstract question in the present business, for it was the avowed intention of the mover to follow it up. He agreed that abstract propositions, without any conclusions drawn from them, were absurd;

because, in that case, it must follow that one's practice was inconsistent with one's principles. With respect to the necessity of reading a precedent from the Journals of the last parliament, he did not see the necessity of it; but, however, he had no objection to its being done, and therefore referred the clerk to the minutes of the last parliament, containing the last resolutions of that house on the subject of the impeachment.

Mr. *Fox* briefly denied the parliamentary necessity of referring to the minutes of the last parliament: he asserted that it was to be supposed that not only the old members, but every new one, nay, that every person throughout the kingdom, were conversant with the transactions of parliament.

This appearing the general sense of the house, Mr. *Misford* waved his opposition, and Mr. *Burke's* motion was put from the chair and agreed to unanimously by the house.

Adjourned.

## FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

### Constantinople, Oct. 1.

ON the 27th of last month the secretary to the Swedish Legation arrived here with the intelligence that peace was signed between Russia and Sweden. This sudden piece of news surprised the Porte greatly, who appeared highly displeased with the defection of an ally, who could create so powerful a diversion in their favour.

Rome, Oct. 18. A rescript, granting a general amnesty to all the inhabitants, has been sent to Avignon. His holiness has granted it at the requisition of the clergy and nobility, who have offered to bring back the malcontents to their duty.

Vienna, Oct. 26. Orders have been given to all the German troops, as well infantry as cavalry, who have entered Hungary, to continue on the war establishment, with a prohibition to the officers to sell their horses.

Warsaw, Oct. 27. Letters from the frontiers, of the 2d, inform us, that Prince Potemkin still keeps the mouths of the Danube closely shut up with his new-constructed little vessels, and has directed all his operations against Ismailo. The accounts received by this day's post inform us, that Ismailo is already in the hands of the Russians, who have taken a considerable quantity of spoil; we, however, must wait further confirmation of this account.

Constantinople, Nov. 7. The plague, which had occasioned some alarm at Pera, is again on the decline, and the weather seasonably dry and cold.

Madrid, Nov. 8. By the last accounts from Oran, dated the 1st inst we learn that they, at that period, had felt sixty shocks of an earthquake. The Moors, subjects of the Bey of Mascara, have endeavoured to profit by the unfortunate situation to which this calamity has reduced the place, but have been repulsed by the intrepidity of Count de la Union, who, with 1204 men, withstood the attacks of 4000 Moors four different times, and made a dreadful slaughter amongst them.

Leyden, Nov. 15. The last letters from the Low Countries contain nothing fresh, saving the obstinacy of the clergy, those of the Belgic nation especially, in refusing the proffered terms of the emperor, their sovereign. The mob, on the 6th inst, burnt that prince's manifesto in the market-place, before the Town-hall, at the foot of a gallows, with a cap of liberty placed on it. However, the definitive resolution will not be taken before the middle of this month, as the Assembly of the Deputies from the States of all the provinces is to be held at Brussels on the 13th inst.

Paris, Nov. 18. Most alarming intelligence is arrived in town from the district of La Nievre: the river Loire overflowed its banks above 20 feet, on the 18th



four arches of the bridge of Nievres were carried away; an immense tract of land is laid under water; the road from Paris to Lyons is impassable; all intercourse is suspended; the lower part of the town of Moulins is deluged; the damage done is very considerable; and the victims many!

*Vienna, Nov. 20.* His Imperial Majesty was crowned King of Hungary on the 15th, at Presbourg, and arrived here this morning, and made his public entry as emperor, through the triumphal arches which had been erected at the expense of this city, for his reception after the coronation at Frankfort.

*Nov. 20.* A full confirmation of the account of the Russian victory over the Turks in the Cuban is received. The Russian army was composed of 14,000 men, that of the enemy, consisting of Turks and Tartars, amounted to from 40 to 45,000, under the command of Batal Bey, the Pacha of Anapa.

*Offend, Nov. 27.* Namur was taken by one column of the Imperial troops on Wednesday last: the patriots retired towards Brussels; the other column of the Austrians entered Brabant, by way of St. Iron, Tirlamont, &c. and arrived at Louvaine on Thursday last, so that a little time must determine the fate of the Brabanters.

*Brussels, Dec. 3.* The Austrian troops arrived here yesterday morning. Their general quarters are at Cambre, a female monastery, about half a league distant from this town, which, only two days before, was occupied by the patriotic troops.

*Flanders, Dec. 3.* The troubles which have for some time past afflicted these unhappy provinces are at an end. The respective States have at last returned to their allegiance, and submitted to the Emperor Leopold. The province of Namur was the first that detached itself from the Union, and surrendered that strong fortress to the Austrian forces, under command of General Bender: the Belgic army, upon this, retired from the posts they had occupied upon the Banks of the Maese, in two divisions, towards Brussels and Mons: the Congress finding it impossible to resist any longer, withdrew, and the States gave up the city of Brussels upon being summoned by Marshal Bender. The remains of the Belgic army, consisting of between eight thousand and nine thousand men, arrived at Ghent on the second in the greatest confusion, and the States of Ghent submitted yesterday. The whole Counter-revolution has been effected with the loss of very few men on either side. All that were left of the Brabant army have been disbanded, and paid one month's pay. Thus all is now

settled in the Netherlands, and nothing is heard but *Long live the Emperor Leopold!*

## SCOTLAND.

*Edinburgh, Dec. 2.* Tuesday a man resident in Wester-Moffat, in the parish of Monkland, was brought to the Tolbooth. He is accused of the murder of John Watt, son of John Watt, surgeon, at Prinfield, near Kirkintulloch, on the 21st of July last. He was brought to the bar of the Circuit Court at Glasgow, on the 15th of September last, in order to have stood trial for the above crime; but some material witnesses having failed to appear, the Advocate Depute deferred the Diet against him, and he was recommitted upon a new warrant. He has since been served with another indictment, and his trial comes on before the High Court of Justiciary on Monday next.

## IRELAND.

*Londonderry, Nov. 25.* Yesterday being market day here, Mr. Cox, the undertaker of our new bridge here, gave the country people leave to pass over to save the expense of the ferryage; Cox is an American, and really a very genteel young fellow, much in the estimation of the town's people in general; and accordingly as this was the first day that any persons were admitted to pass over the bridge, we hoisted the American flag in the midst of it, without the least intention of giving offence; this proceeding was looked upon by every person in a very innocent point of view, until about four o'clock in the afternoon, when detachments from the 40th regiment, under the command of the Mayor, marched to the bridge, and a desperate affray ensued, the American flag flying all the time; the workmen were all Bostonians, who, in the very teeth of the magistracy and soldiery, cut with their axes the entrance of the bridge open, in order to let the people pass.

## COUNTRY NEWS.

*Oxford, Nov. 20.* On Wednesday last the model of a buoyant engine, projected for the purposes of raising water to elevated summits in canal navigations, &c. was exhibited at the Marlborough Arms inn, at Woodstock, in this county, before a numerous and respectable assemblage of gentlemen interested in the Oxford canal, as well as others. Very extraordinary advantages may likewise be derived from this engine, in raising and supplying water for divers other purposes. The mechanism is simple, the powers wonderful, and the operation easy.

*Portsmouth, Nov. 22.* Last night, about eleven, his Majesty's ship *Elephant*, of 74 guns, commanded by C. Thompson, lying in the harbour, and nearly dismantled, received a flash of lightning on the head of her main top-mast, from whence it descended to the heels, and shattered it to pieces; the iron hoop on the head of the main mast next attracted the electric fluid, which broke and fell on the deck; from thence running downwards, it tore every woolding from the mast, broke the staves; and a mizen top-mast, which was lying on the booms, had the head of it shivered to atoms. The chain-pumps were likewise damaged; but providentially no person was hurt.

Indeed, such a night, at this season of the year, is hardly to be remembered; the peals of thunder were loud and incessant, and the flashes of lightning vivid and successive, notwithstanding the vast showers of rain which continued with little or no intermission the whole night.

*Plimpton, Nov. 24.* We hear from Calstock, in Cornwall, that on Saturday night last, they had a most terrible storm there, accompanied with thunder and lightning, which struck the tower and church, and shivered the former in such a manner, that it is thought it must be taken down and rebuilt; one of the pinnacles, and many of the stones, were carried to some distance; the frames of the bells were also so torn, that all fell down, except one; all the glass of the church windows was shivered, the altar-piece destroyed, and other considerable damage done. The landlady of a public house near the church-yard, had a fat pig killed by the lightning, which burnt the skin of it, and purified the flesh in a moment.

*Isle of Wight, Nov. 26.* Friday night, a violent storm of hail fell in this town and neighbourhood, which continued, at intervals, through the whole night. About eight in the morning, the sky resumed its wonted appearance; but, before ten, the clouds gathered with threatening aspect, and thunder was heard at some distance. Approaching nearer, the claps were frequent and tremendous, accompanied with dreadful lightning. At Whitehall, the hail exceeded every thing in the memory of man; while thunder and lightning terrified the human breast. A thunder cloud, surcharged with rain, rendered more awful by frequent lightning, burst with uncommon fury over New Church.

*Sherbury, Dec. 10.* On Monday night last, the post-boy who carries the bye-mail from Worcester, through Stourport, Bradley, &c. to Birmingham, was stopped by two footpads, about a mile from Worcester, on his return to that city. The boy attempted to sound his horn to alarm the neighbourhood, but the villains observing his design, knocked him off his horse,

very much abused him, and then hastily made off with the Stourport bag only, flattering themselves, it is supposed, with the possession of the whole.

#### DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

By the last accounts from Nootka, the Spanish forces consisted of about 300 men, exclusive of the crews of a 40 gun ship and a small sloop of war, stationed there for the protection of their trade; but it is said the Court of Madrid, during the late disturbance, ordered two frigates into the South Seas from Algeiras, and it is thought they also received directions to proceed to Nootka; they have a fort, mounting 21 guns, and have lately erected a strong redoubt, with other detached works.

Mr. Gilbert is continued in the Chair of the Committee of Ways and Means and the Supply. The emoluments of the office amount to 300l. annually.

Lord Cathcart is the Chairman of the Committees in the House of Lords, with a salary of 1000l. a year.

There is at present in the island of Jura, one of the Hebrides, a woman of the name of Catharine Lindsay, who has now attained to the surprising age of 106. In all the course of her long life she has enjoyed uninterrupted good health. She gained her harvest-fee last year; she can milk a cow, nurse a child, and thinks nothing of walking five miles without shoes. Her teeth are entire, and she still enjoys the use of all her faculties. Her husband is living, who is upwards of 90. In the same island of Jura, which does not contain more than 700 inhabitants, there were found last year, by an actual survey taken by the minister of the place, 80 people who were fourscore years of age and upwards.

An authentic miniature of Mary Queen of Scots, painted by Isaac Oliver, from the beautiful and unfortunate original, has been recently discovered. It is said to be in wonderful preservation.

The troubles in Saxony among the peasants are grown to a very alarming height, one instance of which will be sufficient. A nobleman of one of the most considerable families in Saxony, having ordered 50 lashes to be inflicted on one of his peasants, on account of his refusal to execute his commands, the whole village rose on him the next day, and having summoned him to attend them, the people laid hold of their lord, and in the presence of his family, ordered him to undergo the same punishment he had inflicted on his vassal the preceding day, which order was carried into execution.

The Congress of Ambassadors at the Hague, for settling the disputes in Brabant, is dissolved rather abruptly. The Count de Merce d'Argenteau, the Imperial Minister,

had

had been addressed by the other members of the Congress to delay the entry of the Imperial troops into Scabant for eight days, which he refused to do for as many hours. The Ministers of the three allied powers openly protested against this rash conduct of M. de Mercier, and the Congress broke up. It is, however, generally understood that Lord Auckland tacitly acquiesced in the proceedings of this Minister.

The last dispatches from General O'Hara mention, that Prince Edward had perfectly recovered from the indisposition under which he had laboured when the preceding advices left that place.

Upwards of 100 gentlemen, the major part of whom had passed for Lieutenants during the late war, were on Wednesday promoted from mates, midshipmen, &c. to that rank. There are upwards of 100 more on the list for promotion.

The Court of King's Bench ordered, that in future when a defendant pays money into Court, the appointment to tax the costs shall be taken out by the plaintiff in the action, and not by the defendant. The reason the Court gave for altering the practice in this respect was, that by the plaintiff's taking out the appointment, the defendant would know whether the former meant to accept of the money paid into Court. This new rule was ordered to be stuck up at the proper office for the information of attorneys.

By dispatches from Gibraltar, dated the 24th of October, which arrived in town on Thursday, there is advice, that the new Emperor of Morocco had commenced hostilities against the Court of Spain, and laid siege to the important fortress of Ceuta.

*Extract of a letter from China.*

"Mr. Bruce, the Supercargo at Canton, is appointed Ambassador to congratulate the Emperor of China on his having attained the age of eighty years.

"This custom is always attended with great pomp, whenever a circumstance like this falls out; and it is imagined that under the care of Mr. Bruce, this embassy may prove of no small advantage to the English supercargoes settled there.

"Mr. Bruce carries with him some very valuable presents as offerings on the occasion."

Intelligence is certainly arrived in town that Mr. McKendrie, who undertook, between two and three years ago, to penetrate from Montreal to the ocean, has performed his enterprise. He took a course north westward from Montreal, and he reached the ocean, according to his observation, about the 69th degree of northern latitude. In this track he found the country very unpromising for trade, and very uninviting otherwise.

*Statement of the Wealth and Property of Great Britain.*

Although we cannot at present ascertain the principles on which the following calculations were made, yet, as they have been of late years admitted by many of our best political writers, they are presumed to be tolerably correct.

They were drawn up some considerable time ago, and consequently may now be supposed capable of an addition to most of the sums here specified.

The annual value of the lands of Great Britain is generally estimated at twenty millions. The value of the fee thereof, at twenty years purchase, therefore is 400,000,000

The value of the stock on the said lands may be estimated at five times the yearly value, the stock on land being commonly so estimated; 1,000,000,000

The cash of Great Britain 30,000,000

The tonnage of the shipping of the port of London is computed 178,557, which may be estimated about one fourth of the mercantile shipping of the whole island, which then amounts to 714,228 tons, which at ten pounds per ton, gives 7,142,280

The merchandise and goods brought to us for our home and foreign trade, and our consumption, may be computed at five times the value of the shipping, which will be 35,711,400

The royal navy, without ordnance 5,000,000

The value of our home manufactures 20,000,000

Our plate, jewels, and rich furniture 20,000,000

Total £. 617,853,680

**MARRIED.**

At the Right Hon. the Lady Dowager de Clifford's, in Stanhope-street, Colonel Cousinmaker, of the guards, to the Hon. Miss Southwell.

William Elmhirsh, of Ouzlethwaite, near Parsley, in Yorkshire, Esq. to Miss Elmhirsh, of Stixwood, in Lincolnshire.

At Dublin, Robert Byrn, Esq. of Cshinterly, to Miss Devereaux, daughter of Robert Devereaux, Esq. of Carrickmenan.

At Millford, Hants, Richard Moyer, Esq. of Lymington, to Miss Jarrett, daughter of John Jarrett, Esq. of Freemantle, Hants.

At Portsmouth, Lieut. Fenwick, of the royal artillery, to Miss Rebecca Cock, of that town.

Nicholas Ridley, Esq. of Gray's-inn, (brother of Sir Matthew White Ridley, bart.) to Miss Letitia Atkins, of Lower Seymour-street, Portman-square.

John Peter Boileau, Esq. of Hertfordshire, to Miss Pollen, daughter of the Rev. George Pollen, of Guildford, Surrey.

James Edmund Watson, Esq. of the Inner Temple, to Miss Marsh, daughter of the late Rev. Richard Marsh, of Faversham, Kent.

At Bath, Edw. Bayly, Esq. a captain in the royal navy, to Miss Brooke, of Wells.

Thomas Chinnel Porter, Esq. son of Benjamin Porter, Esq. of Theobald's, Herts, to Miss Keir, of Fulham.

Dr. Badely, of Chelmsford, to Miss Brackenbury, of Copford-hall, in Lincolnshire.

Thomas Curry, jun. Esq. of Gosport, to Miss Mary Ann Holloway, eldest daughter of John Holloway, Esq. of Embsworth.

In the Isle of Wight, Counsellor Antefel, of the kingdom of Ireland, to Miss Eliza Fouquet.

Mr. Goodbehere, of Cheap-side, goldsmith, to Miss Wood, daughter of Henry Wood, Esq. of George-street, Westminster.

At Abingdon, Berks, Herbert Pryfe Ball, of Carmarthen, Esq. to Miss Kendall, of Abingdon.

At the Quakers' meeting, at Crook, near Kendal, Mr. Joseph Coad, to Miss Hannah Moreland. It is remarkable that the new-married pair are, together, twelve feet high.

At Marl, in the county of Dublin, George Vesey, Esq. of Lucan, major of the 6th regiment of foot, to Miss Latouche, daughter of the Right Hon. David Latouche.

Thomas Dagnell, Esq. of Cowley, Middlesex, to Miss Clark, of Uxbridge, late of Stevenage, Herts.

#### D I E D.

At Green-grove, in the county of Cardigan, the Right Hon. the Lady Viscountess Lisburne, relict of John the second Viscount, by whose death a large property in that county devolves on Wilmot, the present Earl of Lisburne.

At Aberdeen, in the 33d year of his age, after a long illness, Mr. James Hay Beattie, Assistant Professor of Moral Philosophy in Marischal College.

At Nile-End, in the 86th year of his age, Captain Peter Parker, many years of the Royal Navy.

The Hon. John George Montagu, eldest son of Lord Viscount Hinchinbroke, and Representative in Parliament for the Borough of Huntingdon.

Aged 71 years; John Cooper, Esq. late of Tottenham High Cross.

At Thomastown, Ireland, George Mathew, Esq. uncle to the Right Hon. Lord Landaff.

At Glasgow, Brigade Major James Campbell, of the 42d or Royal Highland Regiment of Foot.

At Nateby, near Garstang, James Swarbrick, aged 102, many years a tenant under Lord Archibald Hamilton and his predecessors.

At Flimby Woodside, near Maryport, Joseph Peck, who was within a few weeks of attaining to the age of 102 years.

The Rev. Henry Talbot, B. D. Rector of Stower Provost, Dorsetshire, and one of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the said county.

At Bath-Hampton, Charles Sealy, Esq. late from Bengal.

At Romford, Miss Rose Brownson, daughter of Captain James Brownson, of the West Essex militia.

At Edinburgh, on the 11th inst. aged 81, Mrs. Helen Orrock, relict of Robert Beaton, Esq. formerly of Kilrie.

In Norwich, in the 70th year of his age, Thomas Lobbs Chute, Esq. of Pickenham, in Norfolk.

At Dover, Robert Thompson, Esq. Postmaster of that place.

Sir Samuel Hannay, of Mochrum, in Scotland, Bart. one of the Representatives in Parliament for Camelford, Cornwall.

At his apartments in Bow-street, Covent-garden, the celebrated singer, Mrs. Thomas Popplewell.

In Ireland, Mrs. Fitzhenry, the once celebrated actress.

In Lincoln's-inn, Mr. James Shaw, Librarian to that Honourable Society.

At Ashley, in Lancashire, Isaac Hyde, aged 102 years and five months; he has left behind him 11 children, 43 grand children, and 41 great grand children.

At Leonard Stanley, in Gloucestershire, John Holbrow, Esq. one of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace for that county.

At Wigan, Richard Walmley, Esq. of that town.

At St. Margaret's, near Rochester, the Rev. Mr. Aulton, formerly one of the Minor Canons of that cathedral.

Samuel Bowyer, Esq. of the Exchequer Office.

Mrs. Annecley, wife of the Rev. Dr. Annecley, of Chewton.

At Lausanne, in Switzerland, Robert Grimstone, Esq. of Newick, in the East Riding of Yorkshire.

Aged 103, Hannah Wilkinson, she had been a widow about 30 years, and

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said that the well remembered the Revolution, and retained all her faculties till about a year ago.

In Dublin, Dr. Ellis, for several years one of the Clerks of the House of Commons of Ireland.

The Rev. Samuel Forster, A. B. Scholar of Wadham College, Oxford, and eldest son of the Rev. Dr. Forster, Registrar of that University.

The Rev. John Rice, Rector of Coryton, Devon.

At Palmerstown, in the county of Kildare, Ireland, in the 61st year of his age, the Right Hon. the Earl of Mayo.

John Deas, Esq. Grand Master of Masons in South Carolina, under the Constitution of the Grand Lodge of England.

The Rev. Mr. John Garnons, Curate and Sunday Evening Lecturer of Allhallows Barking, Tower-street, and also Afternoon Lecturer of Allhallows, London-Wall.

In the 80th year of his age, Thomas Hale, Esq. of Liverpool.

At his house in Bruton-street, Sir Hugh Dalrymple, of North Berwick, Bart.

Aged 90, Mrs. Barbara Slingby, a maiden lady, aunt to Sir Thomas Turner Slingby, Bart.

At Bath, William Brabazon, Esq. brother to the late, and uncle to the present Earl of Meath.

Of a pulmonary consumption, in the 16th year of her age, at Trolton-hall, in the county of Suffolk, Miss Jane Walker, daughter of the Lecturer in Philosophy.

At Chipping Warden, Mrs. Knowler, relict of the Rev. Dr. Knowler, Rector of Bodington, Northamptonshire.

At his house, Lavender Hall, Battersea Rise, near Wandsworth, Surry, Christopher Rideout, Esq. formerly a surgeon in his Majesty's Navy.

Lady Grefley, wife of Sir Nigel Grefley, Bart.

At Kenington, Lieutenant Colonel George Sinclair, late of the 65th regiment.

In Dunstan's-court, Mincing-lane, Mr. Charles Lindgreen, merchant.

At Watford, Mrs. Deane, widow of John Denne, Esq. formerly partner with the late Sir Benjamin Trueman.

John Lewis, Esq. Commander of the Valentine East-Indiaman.

John Layie, one of the Assistant Clerks of his Majesty's household.

At Hurbour Park, in Hampshire, the Hon. William Fellowes Wallop, youngest son of the Earl of Portsmouth.

At Tunbridge Wells, Mrs. Plumtre, widow of the late Francis Plumtre, Esq.

William Barnard, Esq. of Great Russell-street, Bloomsbury.

At Bromley, Kent, W. Jones, Esq.

At Putney, Mrs. Sarah Baker, sister to the late Sir William Baker, Knt.

At Edinburgh, Lieutenant-General John Douglas, Colonel of the 9th regiment of dragoon guards.

At his house at Rochester, Captain Richard Harman, in the service of the Customs, and Superintendent of the Quarantine.

At Bath, Alexander Small Livingstone, Esq. eldest son of Sir Alexander Livingstone, Bart. of Bedlormie and West-quar-ter.

William Edmondstone, late Lieutenant of the 60th regiment, son of John Edmondstone, Esq. of Cambuswallac.

Mr. John Lancaster, son of Joseph Lancaster, Esq. of Hampstead.

At Tetbury, Mr. Charles Vaughan, Lieutenant in his Majesty's Navy, and brother to the Countess of Suffolk.

At Major-General Williamson's, at Avebury, in Wiltshire, Miss Mary Anne Belford, second daughter of the late William Belford, Esq.

Joseph Mellish, Esq. merchant, aged 75.

Dr. Potter, of Tavistock-street, Bedford-square, Physician to the Marybone and to the New Finsbury Dispensary.

In John-street, Gray's inn, Luke Foreman, Esq.

John Ragdale, Esq. at his house in New Bond-street.

**BANKRUPTS.** Elias Gibson, of Liverpool, Lancashire, builder. William Grimditch, of Liverpool, blacksmith and builder. Jonathan Cape, of St. Martin's-le-grand, shoemaker. John Whitebread, of South Beckington, Essex, wheelwright. Edward Webb, of Birmingham, Warwickshire, linen-draper. William Lynes, of the city of Coventry, silkman. John Hughes, of Coventry-street, haberdasher and milliner. John Cook, of Duke-street, Portland-place, wine-merchant. Lewis Pfancok, of Jermyn-street, in the parish of St. James, Westminster, taylor. Edmund Hillier, of Piccadilly, perfumer. John Minchin and John Leadam, of St. Swithin's-lane, hardwaremen and co-partners. James Fletcher, late of Salisbury, Wilts, mercer. Benjamin Wenant, of the Haymarket, in the parish of St. James's, Westminster, watchmaker. Thos. Moore, of Kingston Blunt, in the parish of Aton, Oxfordshire, carrier. Allen Fretwell, late of High Holborn, upholsterer. John Anderson, of Hoxton, mariner. John Watson, of Fleet-market, London, linen-draper. William Lendon, now or late of Cranborn-street, Leicester-fields, haberdasher. Henry Wichells, of Lothbury, grocer and tea-dealer. Ralph Wewitzer, late of Well-street, Goodman's-fields, (but now a prisoner in the King's Bench), dealer and chapman. Maria Johnson, of Jermyn-street, St. James's, milliner. Trevor Nicholas, of Cheptow, Monmouthshire, block-maker.

[Remainder in our next.]

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per Ct. recdg.	3 per Ct. Contol.	4 per Ct. Contol.	5 per Ct. Navy.	Long Ann.	Short date.	Indis Stock.	India Ann.	India Bonds.	3. Sa Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Super Ct.	New Navy.	Arch. Bull.	Pontine.	Lottery Tickets.
10	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			98 99					16			16
11	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			94 95					16			16
12	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			94 95					16			16
13	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			94 95					16			16
14	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			94 95					16			16
15	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			94 95					16			16
16	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			94 95					16			16
17	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			94 95					16			16
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29	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			94 95					16			16
30	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			94 95					16			16
31	18	784	791	994	1101	1031-15	12			94 95					16			16

## METEOROLOGICAL DIARY

in London, for December, 1790.  
By Mr. W. Jones, Optician, HOLBORN.  
Height of the Barometer and Therma-  
meter with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer.		Thermom- eter.		Weather in December 1890.			
	Inches and 100th Parts.		Fahrenheit's.					
	8 o'Clock Morning.	1 o'Clock Night.	8 o'Clock Morning.	1 o'Clock Noon.				
N. 27	30.0	32.20	36	48	38	Cloudy		
28	30.2	34.30	11	36	48	37	Do	
29	29.9	32.70	14	38	53	41	Do	
30	29.5	34.20	15	36	53	39	Snow.	
1	4.40	4.40	36	4	32	37	47	Sleet.
2	4.20	4.20	39	8	43	48	39	Fair.
3	3.29	3.29	50	43	49	49	Rain.	
4	4.00	4.00	38	47	46	30	Cloudy.	
5	5.09	7.30	2	36	44	34	Do.	
6	6.30	8.10	30	35	43	35	Fair.	
7	7.30	7.70	29	39	39	47	47	Rain.
8	8.30	8.30	4	44	46	46	Do.	
9	9.34	9.30	2	47	50	47	Do.	
10	10.30	10.30	1	48	49	49	Do.	
11	11.30	1.20	36	45	50	38	Cloudy.	
12	12.29	1.29	31	37	44	44	Fair.	
13	12.29	6.70	39	34	43	46	44	Rain.
14	14.29	7.29	44	37	43	46	Fair.	
15	15.29	7.29	52	41	46	38	Windy.	
16	16.29	7.29	49	44	38	44	Rain.	
17	17.29	10.28	74	38	43	40	Do.	
18	18.28	6.29	39	37	43	32	Do.	
19	19.29	1.29	49	34	38	34	Do.	
20	20.29	7.29	94	31	33	34	Fair.	
21	21.29	7.29	75	45	49	49	Rain.	
22	22.29	31.29	83	37	49	49	Fair.	
23	23.29	6.29	96	37	42	35	Do.	
24	24.30	9.29	83	36	44	35	Rain.	
25	25.29	8.29	5	44	48	34	Do.	
26	26.30	6.29	90	31	33	34	Foggy.	
27	27.29	8.29	67	31	33	30	Fair.	

Corn-Exchange, London.

RETURNS of CORN and GRAIN  
From Nov. 19 to Dec. 4, 1900.

	Quar- ters.	Price.	Ave. Price per Q.
Barley	9847	125 3/4	12 1/2
Beans	4078	188 7/8	18 7/8
Malt	3923	52 3/8	5 1/8
Oats	3091	16 1/4	1 1/4
Peas	1699	24 1/2	2 1/2
Rye	285	34 1/2	3 1/2
R. Seed	64	147 1/2	14 1/2
Wheat, Bigg	462	105 1/2	10 1/2

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